A GENERIC FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING PLACES IN THE PUBLIC ARENA OF CITIES: A MIXED-METHODS STUDY OF CITIES ACROSS CULTURES

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ABSTRACT

A Generic Framework for Analysing Places in the Public Arena of Cities: A Mixed-Methods Study of Cities Across Cultures

Concepts of place and placemaking and the interaction between people and place have been viewed as multidisciplinary research areas and have been studied by different disciplines and from different perspectives. These include philosophy, geography, built environment (architecture, planning, urban design and landscape architecture) and psychology (environmental psychology and environmental behaviour).

Despite diverse attempts to analyse places, disciplines agree that place is a complex and multifaceted concept. It is an integral part of human experience, and has an impact on everyday life. However, many of the existing theoretical conceptualisations of place lack generic applicability, and are based on the assumption that all places are different and are particular to their setting. Consequently, generic principles cannot be established and places can only be analysed on a case-by-case basis. An alternative perspective is that the individual case study approach has actually impeded analysis of place, and prevents the construction of a framework that can be used in a variety of places regardless of their culture and location.

The approach employed by this research is based on developing a theoretical framework which has the potential to assist in the design of places, and help in the recognition of successful places. This study therefore focuses on the common experiential interchanges between people and place, and how the dynamic transformation of the environment into meaningful places, for people with different cultural values can be enacted. In this context the main attention is on the common attributes of place.

This thesis provides an overview of the current literature about place and discusses its theoretical roots. By employing a mixed-methods approach the research illustrates theoretical and methodological developments for the empirical study of place. Data was collected from eight Iranian cities which are diverse and distinct in terms of geographical location, culture and ethnicity. Nearly 8000 survey questionnaires, in two stages, were utilised to interrogate concepts of place and to scrutinise the common attributes of place. Statistical analysis was employed to analyse the data and to develop a framework for the analysis of place. To validate the framework and its cross-cultural applicability, it was tested in three cities that differed from the source of the original data in terms of location and culture.

The research demonstrates a number of common attributes, which suggests that the study of place is not isolated nor specific to location. This framework can be utilised as a basis for placemaking in cities, independent of location, culture and community.

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this research to my beloved wife Zohreh, for her great encouragement, understanding, patience and sacrifice – if it was not for her my dreams would never come true – and to my lovely son Farbod, for his support during the pressure of the last few years.

Also I wish to dedicate this thesis to my father Lesan, my mother Ashraf, my mother in-law Ghodsi, my brothers Hamid and Ali, and my sisters Farah and Azita.
I am forever grateful for their undying love and unconditional support.

Finally I wish to dedicate this work to the loving memory of Babaye babam, Noushin and Shiva, whom I sadly lost during the years of this study.

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others.

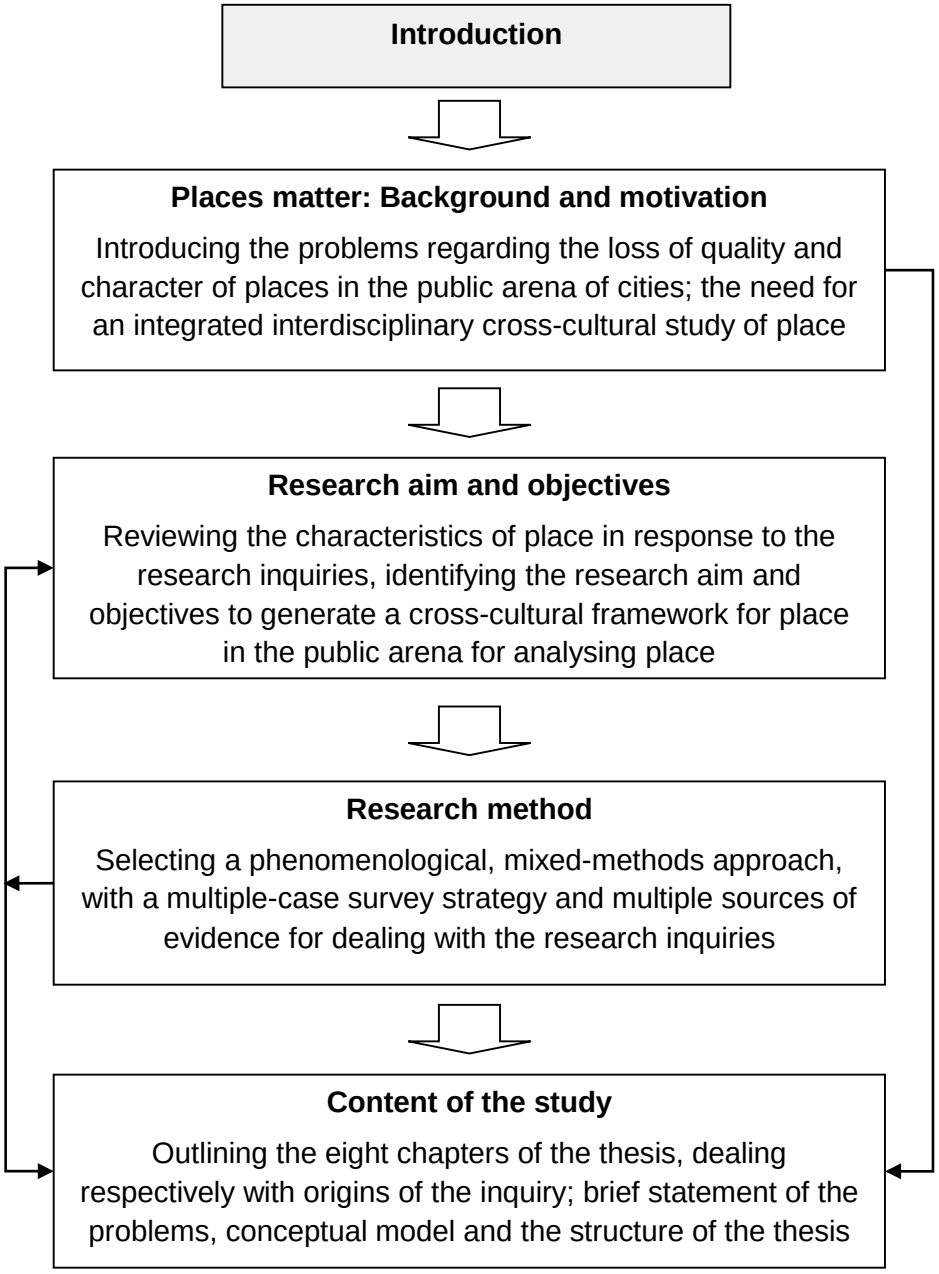
Name: Mohammad Reza Radfar

Signature:

Date:

Introduction: Place in the Public Arena of Cities

Chapter 1: Introduction: Place in the Public Arena of Cities



1.1 Introduction: place in the public arena of cities

> *We look towards a society that is truly pluralistic, one where power is more evenly distributed among social groups than it is today in virtually any country, but where the different values and cultures of interest and placed-based groups are acknowledged and negotiated in a just public arena.*
>
> *Jacobs & Appleyard (1996, p.116)*

This research examines places in the public arena of cities, analyses them in cross-cultural contexts, and investigates common attributes of favourite ordinary places which provide the settings for people's everyday lives (Certeau, 1988; Knox, 2005; Adams & Tiesdell, 2013). In this respect, places demonstrate shared and common values for people from a diverse cultural background. This notion reflects on the importance of how places in the public arena are socially produced, and in many ways how they shape people's social behaviour. Given the current social diversity in most cities around the world, people share public places with others from a range of cultural background and ethnical practices (Walzer, 1986). Therefore this study focuses on the relationship between places and people from different cultural backgrounds and their collective attitude towards and preferences of place.

The main concern of the research is the identification of the common attributes of place across people from a diverse cultural background and the way in which they make places through their everyday activities (Moughtin, 2003b; Powell, 2004; Smith, 2008), which impact on their choice of place in the public arena of cities. 'Public arena' in this context means not only the physical manifestation of the public sphere, but the arena for interaction in which people make intersubjective communications (Madanipour, 1996) and is defined by physical, social and symbolic boundaries (Madanipour, 2003). Place in the public arena of cities, then, is not merely an urban form (Aravot, 2002), it is a setting for various social interaction that provides context for people's daily routines; with both opportunities and constraints, it is an arena for everyday common sense, knowledge and experience; and 'an arena for contesting social norms' (Knox, 2005).

In addition, this research avoids using the term 'public space' to explore a theoretical understanding of places in the public arena of cities; it concentrates upon 'place' rather than 'space'. 'Public space' also has conceptual connotations and has been defined as a concept with many inherited meanings; as a concept, it is situated within a diverse literature with overlapping of interests and often poor definition (Carmona *et al.*, 2008; Carmona, 2010b).

In this study, the mutual interactions between people and their built and natural environments play a central role in their relationships. Consequently this research will provide a source of evidence and seeks to assist directly to analyse places, or indirectly, to design better places regardless of their location and dominant culture. The purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the mutual interactions that work between people and places across cultures. The focus is not on the differences, but on their commonalities, and how the dynamic of transforming the environment into a favourite place, amongst people with different cultural values takes place.

The methodological orientation of the research has been defined as a mixed-methods process of investigation, by means of a systematic inquiry, to define the research question and therefore adding to the body of knowledge. This study is the outcome of the attempts of a landscape architect-urban designer to find a better understanding of place and placemaking in cities across cultures. Although it is not directly oriented towards design of public places, the study is expected to provide an awareness which would be of assistance in the process of analysis and design of places in the public arena of cities.

1.2 Places matter

'Whatever space and time means, place mean more' (Smithson, 1968, p.101). Places matter extremely to human experience, and condition their activities and interactions. Therefore it is essential to understand why certain places appear to be more successful than others (Lewis, 1982). The notion of 'place' has gone in and out of academic debate in the past few decades. In the 1980s and 1990s, some researchers on globalisation argued that places in cities no longer mattered if people could be connected anywhere (Massey, 1997). Although the last two decades of urban transformation has shown this picture is partly accurate, global connections and current cultural diversity have changed the way people relate to each other and to places. Nevertheless, places and consequently cities have become more significant.

Cities, as important parts of the everyday life of people, are characterised by their public places (Castello, 2010), emerging in many diverse appearances; parks, sports and recreation complexes, streets, boulevards, restaurants, cafeterias, shopping centres and many more. Relph (1976) recognises place as a focus of personal intention and argues that it can be understood as a centre of meaning. It is also widely accepted by many researchers that people's social and cultural activities are central to placemaking (Gustafson, 2001; De Magalhaes, 2010); however, making a place is not necessarily constructing a public space, square, playground or developing a shopping centre. When

people experience, use and have the benefit of place for its particular social and physical characteristics, then actual placemaking has happened (Stea & Turan, 1993; Aravot, 2002), and by attaching significance to places, people transform them into a defined and meaningful places (Tuan, 1977).

Cities are also under constant change; they are built and rebuilt and consequently transform places in and around them. These changes do not always have positive consequences, and sometimes cause problems, such as urban divide and social exclusion (Madanipour *et al.*, 1998; Rogers, 2006). For instance, under the impact of the credit crunch or globalisation many places suffered unprecedented change, losing or adapting different identities or cultural characteristics, both in the local and global senses of place (Massey & Jess, 1995; Parkinson *et al.*, 2009). The development of this process has been slower in some countries and especially in historic cities (UNHabitat, 2004). However, in some more conservative countries with geographical and cultural contrasts and ideological identity, many places still protect their local independence with diverse and strong cultures (Kheirabadi, 2000).

In this context, one growing concern is the loss of connection between people and places (Trancik, 1986; Kunstler, 1993; Franck & Stevens, 2007). Many researchers collectively recognise people as the creators of places, and this creation is simply a continual process of interaction between the person, their social milieu, and the built form. This process produces a favourite place, and as a result, a sense of place (Stokowski, 2002; Turner & Turner, 2006; Shamsuddin & Ujang, 2008).

In this respect it is accepted that place is a complex and multifaceted concept (Canter, 1985), and it is constructed as people attach meaning to a physical setting (Relph, 1976; Canter, 1977). The attributes of such a place, which is manifested in the place itself – its fabric, use, user and setting – are derived from aesthetic, historic, social and symbolic associations with past, present and future.

If favourite places are indeed fundamental aspects of people's everyday life, and if they are resources for identity, protection and meaning for individuals and for groups of people (Edwards & Usher, 2008), then it is important that the means of experiencing, creating and maintaining those favourite places are not lost. It is also important to know what the distinctive and essential character of places might be and how people understand those places.

1.3 Place and space heterology

The concept of space that overwhelmingly influenced the modern architecture and urbanism differs from the notion of place. Trancik (1986, p.12) indicates, 'Space is a bounded or purposeful void with the potential of physically linking elements'. Furthermore, Relph (1976) points out that space is 'amorphous and intangible' and it is not an entity that can be described directly. In this context it is suggested that space is a homogenous, plastic medium which is modulated by buildings, and since the space is seen to be universal, continuous and homogenous, it is required to be treated in a uniform manner and be relatively featureless (Franck & Stevens, 2007).

Conversely, a place as described earlier is a phenomenon of the combination of three intertwined elements of specific spatial form, behavioural and social activity, and sets of meanings, conceptions and symbols (Canter, 1977; Relph, 1992). Accordingly, Relph (1992) suggests that the word 'place' best applies to those fragments of human experiences which are meaningful; activities and a specific landscape are all implied and enclosed by each other.

Generally speaking, places, unlike spaces, are not abstractions and empty physical containers; they are the manifestation of human experience in everyday life, consisting of emotions and sensual feelings. As Rapoport (1977, p.12) indicates, place is more than a three-dimensional physical space; he argues what sets place apart from space are issues of 'environmental experience' and 'meaning'. To emphasise that, Trancik (1986, p.12) explains that space becomes place only when it is given a contextual meaning derived from contextual experience. Similarly Low (1992) believes that while space is a piece of land, place is a meaningful and shared symbol, or in Norberg-Schulz's (1971) words, place is space with character. Furthermore, people's experience and memories of different parts of the built environment have a significant role in placemaking. In this respect places are spaces that people can remember, care about and make a part of their life (Relph, 1976).

1.4 Current state of research

The literature on 'place' has been documented in articles in a variety of disciplines. Many academic writers and researchers have identified the importance of 'place' in day-to-day life and recognised 'place' as a main element of public life (Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1977; Gehl, 1987; Tibbalds, 1992; Arefi, 1999; Madanipour, 2003; Gehl *et al.*, 2006).

Despite the diversity of disciplines and their different perspectives in the concept of place, they agree that places are an integral part of human experience (Relph, 1976; Tuan,

1977); however, different groups of people have different ideas about how to use place, and their ideas will translate into different normative social activities and symbolic performance and spatial practice (Lefebvre, 1991). As a result, places are the platform for direct human experience and different people may experience places which are dissimilar that where they come from. The question is not how these places might be alike and why those similarities and differences might matter for the activity people are undertaking; what matters is how people from different cultural backgrounds experience the social, spatial and symbolic environment of cities.

Although considerable research has been carried out to explore aspects of place in urban settings (e.g. Canter, 1977; Buttimer & Seamon, 1980; Lewis, 1982; Agnew & Duncan, 1989; Altman & Zube, 1989; Brill, 1989; Shamai, 1991; Altman & Low, 1992; Langdon, 1994; Massey & Jess, 1995; Bohl & Schwanke, 2002; Entrikin, 2002; Manzo, 2005; Auburn & Barnes, 2006; Carmona, 2010a, b; Madanipour, 2010b) some issues still remain to be addressed. Current studies have emphasised the need for wider integrated and cross-cultural research, to meet a specific need relating to current concerns about the impact of public place on everyday life (Castells, 1983; Castello, 2010).

Researchers point out that study on public places is necessary to explore and achieve standards that can respond to various users and their cross-cultural needs, and that the current analytical approach need to be re-examined in different urban settings (Southworth & Ben-Joseph, 2003). On this matter, the dearth of comparative studies on various types of places and in cross-cultural contexts is evident in the literature (Neill, 2004).

On another issue, most of the research studies on urban places have been conducted in a single-case study and generally in western countries (Lake & Townshend, 2013). Therefore, the evaluation of new paradigms, like cross-cultural approaches towards the study of place, needs to be investigated, since the number of cross-cultural studies incorporating these approaches is small (Castells, 1983; Storey, 2006; Lake & Townshend, 2013).

In this context, many of the existing studies lack universal applicability, as they are based on the assumption that places are different and can only be assessed as individual case studies. An alternative perspective is that, although cultural, social and spatial components of places differ across cultures, there are a number of similarities and general attributes that can be observed (Madanipour, 2010b). Therefore, the single-case study approach can potentially impede the comprehensive analysis of place. The dominance of case studies may have established their validity as a basis for subsequent

generalisation and the development of new analytical tools and theories based on monocultural values. Based on this, public places have been developed, none of which has been examined either on its general environmental responsiveness or with particular reference to its social and spatial characteristics.

Furthermore, as investment, development and design of urban places become more global, judgements on the quality of places has become increasingly distanced from site-specific and cultural contexts, moving towards international and cross-cultural values (Carmona *et al.*, 2001). At the same time in the current competition for public resources, the needs and aspirations of communities as diverse and multicultural are disregarded and lose out. In the United Kingdom, the importance of developing high-quality public places has been consistently highlighted; places that people from diverse social and cultural backgrounds experience as their local built environment and enhance their sense of well-being (Carmona, 2009; UK Government, 2009). But in most cities in the UK and around the world, it is argued that these places quickly move from 'well-designed, well-managed and well-maintained areas to neglected, poorly designed environments in which the overriding impression is that nobody cares' (Carmona, 2009, p, 189).

In addition to the above, this thesis is also a response to a number of previous researchers' calls for more studies about the relationship of people with places in contemporary urbanism, especially with larger samples and in a variety of regional and cultural coverage (Carmona *et al.*, 2001; Cresswell, 2004).

1.5 The research question, aim and objectives

The starting point of this research was that, living in a society with multicultural diversity, the current knowledge of places in the public arena of cities gives little attention to such cultural diversity, and how people from different ethnic, cultural and geographical backgrounds approach place in the public arena of cities is not clear. Do they choose and use places in a similar manner? And what are the commonalities or differences across culture?

Considering the interdisciplinary area of place study as the principal field of research, and taking the prevailing theories presented in the introductory sections into account, the purpose of this thesis is to reveal whether common attributes of places in the public arena of cities, as expressed by people from different cultural values, can be established.

Ultimately, the idea is that by identifying favourite places in the public arena of cities across different cultures, and examining the common attributes which describe those

places, it is likely that those common attributes could be used to analyse public places in various locations and, independent from culture, ultimately develop places that attract all people regardless of their culture. Therefore the main aim of this research is:

To develop a generic framework for analysing places in the public arena of cities.

To develop such a framework, the research needs to investigate the similarities (if any) across cultures in cities' public arena. Therefore the main research question is:

Are there cross-cultural similarities in the attributes of place in the public arena of cities?

In the light of the research aim and question, the research seeks to identify the attributes of place and to reach a better understanding of the relationship between people and place in cross-cultural contexts and in different urban settings. To fulfil this aim, the significant objectives that need to be achieved are stated as follows:

1. **To explore the current theoretical approaches to the study of place;**
2. **To identify the main attributes of place in the public arena of cities;**
3. **To develop a methodology to examine the main attributes of place in different cultural settings;**
4. **To identify the interrelationship and hierarchy of attributes within favourite places;**
5. **To validate the generic applicability of the framework.**

1.6 Research method

This study employs a combination of various investigative techniques, using several data sources including a multiple-case survey study and quantitative data analysis. The research methodology employed in this study is intended to provide a systematic approach to investigate the research aim and objectives. The type of data, the method of data processing and their sources are also specified in detail in Chapter Four of this thesis.

The main epistemological concept of the study, which is based on the phenomenological approach, aims at eliciting the place in a multicultural context through exploring first-hand experience of place from the user's perception, in settings with different cultural and geographical backgrounds.

Meanwhile as a complimentary approach, mixed methods, with a multiple-case survey strategy and multiple sources of evidence to deal with research inquiries, are employed to handle the complexities associated with the explanation of the multifaceted nature of place and its related problems in the public arena of cities, and to trace the relationship between people and place.

The multiple-site survey studies are employed as an empirical inquiry to: 1) investigate the nature of place within its real-life context; 2) remove the boundaries between places in the public arena of cities and their cultural differences; and 3) provide multiple sources of evidence for triangulation and comparative analysis of various samples and settings (Yin, 2003). Data collection in the survey studies involves both primary and secondary data including: semi-open and structured interviews with residents, as well as published research, government documents and national census data.

The primary data in this thesis consists of that derived from a field study. In order to incorporate greater cultural diversity, a multiple-case survey study is devised to collect data from the residents of the sample cities – eight Iranian cities which are diverse and distinct in terms of geographical location, culture and ethnicity. Before the main study, a pilot study is conducted to examine the methods and techniques. Qualitative interpretation and quantitative analysis techniques will be employed to analyse data and to develop the theoretical framework.

Data reduction techniques, exploratory factor analysis and reliability tests will also be employed, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 19). To examine the cross-cultural applicability of the framework, it is applied to three other cities: Glasgow (Scotland), Birmingham (England) and Dublin (Ireland), which are again diverse in terms of culture and location, and in contrast with the source of the original data.

The final stage of the research is the presentation of the theoretical framework and the implications into practice and for the future studies. Details of the various stages of the research design and methodology appear in Chapter Four.

1.7 Originality and significance

Unlike the most of the previous research on place, this study is not limited to a western, monocultural context; it will be concerned with the relationship between people and place in different cultural backgrounds. Individual subject disciplines' theoretical and methodological limitations have failed to provide a complete picture of place, and there is no consensus on the attributes of place across them. By employing an integrated

multidisciplinary approach, this study provides a detailed account of the analysis of place from a multidisciplinary perspective.

The significance of the study will also be its contribution to 'place analysis', by developing a knowledge base and theoretical framework in the multidisciplinary area of place study which accommodate social, spatial and symbolic criteria. The study also emphasises the importance of first-hand experiences of ‘users’ in the development of framework and strategies, particularly as a factor to be considered in the analysis of places.

1.8 Outline of the thesis

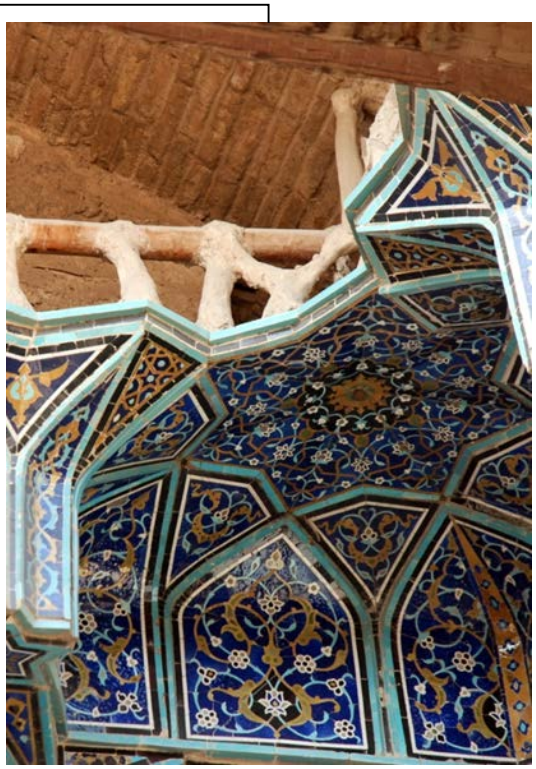
This thesis is organised into eight chapters along with references and appendices. The chapters are: 1) Introduction; 2) Theoretical perspectives; 3) Towards an integrated theoretical framework; 4) Research design and methodology; 5) Data results and analysis; 6) Development of the framework; 7) Testing the framework; and 8) Conclusion. The aim and the context of each chapter are summarised below.

Accordingly, this chapter (Introduction) presents the background of the research and an overall view of the research problem, and introduces the aim and objectives of the research. The issues relating to place in the public arena, and the people–place relationship, are the main focuses of this chapter. **Chapter Two** establishes the theoretical perspectives of the study. This chapter provides a review of the relevant literature and the current state of knowledge, and employs a systematic review of the concept of place within the main disciplines involved in the study of place: philosophy, geography, built environment and environmental psychology. The main goal of this chapter is the identification of the main attributes of place from a multidisciplinary perspective. **Chapter Three** concludes the literature review and introduces the conceptual basis for the research and consequently a theoretical framework as the basis of the investigation of place. This chapter attempts to identify the area where major gaps in knowledge exist. On the basis of the previous chapter, **Chapter Four** develops an analytical strategy, illustrates the methodological approach and the research procedures to be adopted. It describes phenomenology as the main philosophical approach of the research and explores the ways that the theoretical framework is applied to the research. This chapter puts the study into perspective and explains the research’s approach to the multiple-site survey study approach and the utilisation of a mixed-methods inquiry. It also provides analytical methods and techniques that are employed in the sampling design and a two-stage data collection process, including the research design, development of the questionnaires and the steps to be taken and how they are to be conducted. The

final part of this chapter explains the process of data collection and reports the summary of the fieldwork.

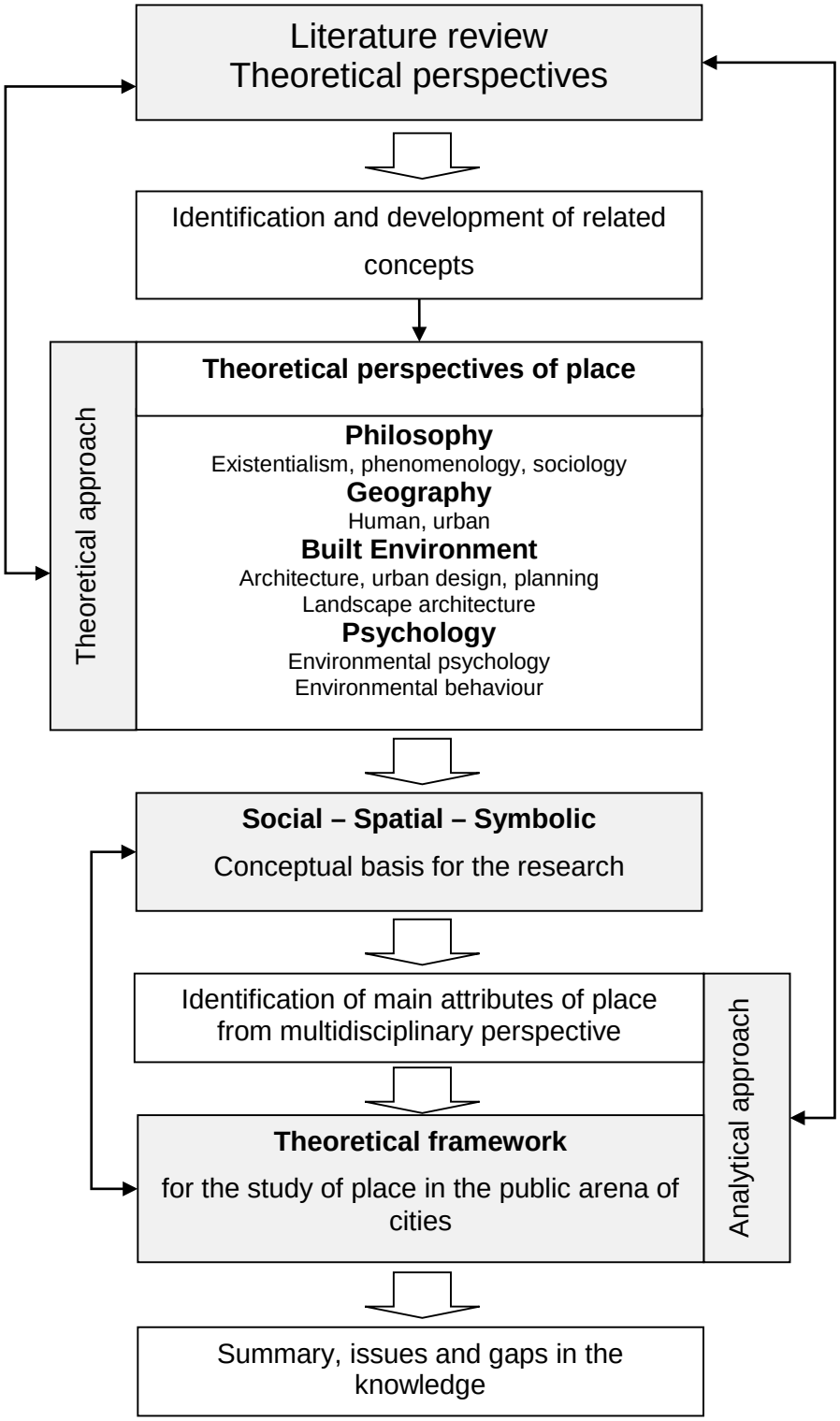
Following data collection, **Chapter Five** presents the results and the analysis of 7901 questionnaires completed from the samples of eight Iranian cities. This chapter outlines the characterisation of favourite places and the participants' attitudes towards their own favourite places. The fundamental goal of this chapter is to validate the research findings, and it also develops knowledge from the collected data and the basis for development of the cross-cultural framework for place in the following chapter. **Chapter Six** utilises the data results and examines the components of the framework and the interrelationship between the attributes. The proposed framework is to be applied in three cities which are in contrast with the source of the original data; this is the main focus of **Chapter Seven**. This chapter explains the process of testing the framework and its applicability. The chapter outlines the comparison analysis of results between the original fieldwork in Iran and the application of the framework, presents the discussion and finalises the framework accordingly.

The final chapter, **Chapter Eight**, produces a summary, concludes the thesis and illustrates the research outcomes, implications and recommendations for future research. This chapter evaluates the methodology applied, and speculates on the use of the findings.



Conceptualising the Foundation of the Research

Chapter 2: Conceptualising the Foundation of the Research



2.1 Introduction

The situation of place and the research aim and objectives outlined in Chapter One will be put into context within this chapter, which examines the multidimensionality and interdisciplinary nature of the concept of place and discusses the theoretical perspectives of the relationship between people and place in the public arena.

The main aim of this chapter is twofold; first of all, through the review of the current state of knowledge, including the literature and research on issues and the influences of place in related disciplines, it identifies a suitable conceptual basis for the research. Secondly, this chapter focuses on the identification of the main attributes of place, and develops a theoretical framework leading the research to the development of an integrated conceptual and theoretical framework for the research, as discussed in the next chapter.

2.2 Context of the research

The concept of place has been considered by a number of disciplines. Each discipline studies the concept of place from different perspectives, related to their goals and objectives. In order to identify the main disciplines concerned, this research performed a systematic appraisal of the current literature. For this purpose, 283 sources of information, including books and journal articles, were consulted. The literature relating to the subject of the relationship between people and place forms the context within which this research is conducted, with specific focus on the experience of place in urban settings.

Table 2.1 illustrates the four main disciplines identified: philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology, and their relevant sub-disciplines. The list of subject disciplines is not by any means a comprehensive list, but is meant to indicate the range of available literature to this research. Also, the ranking of the disciplines does not imply the precedence of one discipline over another.

Although the common theme across all the disciplines identified is people–place relationships, their individual interpretations emphasise different aspects of place and therefore have different perspectives about place, which will be discussed in the following sections.

Table 2.1: Main disciplines involved in the study of place and some of the key proponents and authors

Discipline	Sub-discipline	Example of main proponents and authors
Philosophy	Phenomenology	Auge, Bachelard, Badiou, Casey,Heidegger, Husserl, Lefebvre, Malpas,Merleau-Ponty
Geography	Human Geography	Cresswell, Harvey, Relph, Seamon, Tuan
	Urban Geography	Agnew, Bassand, Bourdieu, Cox, Soja
Built Environment	Architecture	Krieger , Lynch, Norberg-Shulz, Rossi, Sitte,
	Planning	Bannerjee, Healy, Graham, Hillier, Montgomery, Punter Smith
	Urban Design	Appleyard, Butina Watson, Carmona, Carr, Gehl, Lang, Madanipour, Montgomery, Tibbald, Tiesdell, Townshend,Trancik,
	Landscape Architecture	Appleton, Hull, Lowenthal, Thompson, Thwaites
Psychology	Environmental Psychology and Environmental Behaviour	Altmen,Canter, Cooper Marcus, Craik, Ittleson, Kaplan, Lalli, Proshansky, Rapoport, ,Steadman, Stokols Twigger-Ross, Uzell

2.3 A review of the perspectives of place

Place has been studied by a variety of disciplines, each with its own perspectives and priorities. The disciplines have been grouped under four main headings: philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology. Philosophy offers a phenomenological inquiry of place, whereas geography starts with the description of the phenomena of place, which leads to a relationship between humans and geography. Built environment's prescriptive approach is largely concerned with the design and construction of the built environment and extends its domain to cover architecture, planning, urban design and landscape architecture. In contrast to the long traditions of philosophy, geography and built environment, psychology of place and environmental psychology, which deal with the human–environment relationship, only appeared in the last three decades.

Despite the commonalities across disciplines, their different approaches to the understanding of the concept of place, as reflected in their different interests, have kept them apart, leaving a gap in knowledge and divergent directions of inquiry. Whereas architecture tends to analyse place mainly as a physical entity, human geography turns its focus more on the people and their social life; and psychology of place concentrates on the study of human behaviour. The following sections provide a summary of the approaches of these groups of disciplines to interpretations of place. During this review, key attributes of place will be identified in order to be applied in the development of the theoretical and analytical framework of this research.

This literature review fulfils one of the key research objectives on the search for key attributes of place, as described in Chapter One. In this context, the task for this chapter is the identification of the key attributes from each discipline's perspective, in order to form a theoretical framework for further investigation of generic applicability of them. Considering the amount and wealth of the existing literature, this thesis intentionally refrains from deep theoretical arguments, and is satisfied with the identification of key attributes of place.

2.4 Place in philosophical thought

Where are we? This is a fundamental question of philosophy. To philosophy, understanding of place is central to appreciation of the nature of human relationship with others and with the world. In fact, the inquiry about place came from philosophy, from questions concerning the relationship between life and place. Place is as important as space and time to philosophy. In his discussion on the history of philosophical thinking about place, Casey (1999) looks at ancient Babylonian mythology and explains that the meaning of the word 'creation' has a connection with the description of place. Creation is always connected with pre-existing matter. He then explains that in the action of creation, the last two things to be created by the Babylonians' god are human beings and the places for them to inhabit; he emphasises the importance of place and argues that the existence of human beings occurs in some kind of place (Casey, 1999, p.29).

The concept of place also can be traced back to the philosophical thinking of Aristotle in his discussion of place in physics, where he articulates the importance of the power of place, defining place as *topos*; a space which is **occupied by self** and with the **presence of other people** (Madanipour, 2007). To Aristotle, everywhere is place, including the earth as a whole. Aristotle recognises place as one of the indispensable categories of every substance, and conceptualises place as something confining and confined. The philosophical support that place offers to people is not only for adequate shelter but for boundaries (Casey, 1999; Borchert, 2006). The way Aristotle carefully investigates place in the physical world and how the world presents itself to the human observer in their immediate lifeworld is at the root of phenomenological investigation.

Another philosophical concept of place can be found in the mythical cosmological vision of Plato, and his theory of movement between the basic elements (fire, earth, air and water). In his cosmology, Plato introduces the concept of the receptacle: a place in which **everything can occur;** and as he considered that everything exists in some particular place, and therefore must occupy some space, Plato calls this place *chora* (Plato *et al.*, 360BC, trans. 2008, p.45). While Plato's *chora* is understood as a zone, region or a

space of indefinite extension, Aristotle's *topos* tends to be used to define a place as a **location** (Castello, 2010). Considering **place as a location**, Bourdieu (2000) defines place as the location of the biological body of the individual, occupying a position in physical space and social space.

Malpas (2006) asserts that in philosophy place is where the **human finds himself**, and that 'place is neither an abstract world of ideas nor the world of sense-data and theoretical objects' (Malpas, 2006, p.39). In other words, place in philosophy is initially defined by its spatial dimension. However, drawing on Heidegger's concept of place – **being-in-the-world**, connected with residing and dwelling – it also involves other human aspects. For Heidegger (1962), dwelling involves looking after or taking care of a place. This caring aspect develops into a responsibility for place and represents itself in different symbolic interpretations such as dependence on a place.

Tracing the origin of place from western philosophy and phenomenology, Casey (1993, 1999, 2002) notes the longevity of interest about place in philosophical thought. The key issue in phenomenological approach is the way in which people **experience and understand** the world. Phenomenology involves the understanding and description of places as they are experienced. It is about the relationship between 'being' and 'being-in-the-world'. 'Being-in-the-world' exists in a process of objectification in which people objectify the world by being preoccupied with their appearance or **presence of self** (Heidegger, 1962).

Casey (1999) argues that place in the world does not exist independently, and that, therefore, information gathered only from it is not reliable. This can be explained through the epistemological method of phenomenology, introduced by Heidegger (1962) and Husserl (1973). For Husserl (1973), phenomenology is the source of knowledge, derived directly from the origins of phenomena, which can be experienced and explained as the world directly from the user's perception. In this respect phenomenology is concerned with describing experiences as they exist in the world through people's perceptions, without recourse to explanation (Seamon, 1979; Buttimer & Seamon, 1980). To Heidegger (1962) and Lefebvre (1991), perception and language, as ways people describe their insights, are central to phenomenology, which depends upon the individual subject and their experience of the place.

Contemporary philosophers and philosophically-minded authors on place, unlike Heidegger (1962, 1971), cannot provide a definition of place. Instead they search for a way to envision place in practice and in professional action, to find place in the course of history (Foucault, 1986), in the politics of space (Lefebvre, 1991), in geographical

experience (Soja, 1996; Tuan, 1974, 1977; Relph, 1976, 1981), in architecture (Tschumi, 1994) and in the poetic imagination of place (Bachelard, 1964).

From a different point of view, Casey (1999) emphasises that culture and place are intertwined, and the notion of place in philosophical thought has gone through a long history from Aristotle to today and is seen as a multidimensional concept. At its core it has **spatial** dimension, but it is realised through **symbolic** presentation within the **social** context (Gruenewald, 2003).

Bachelard (1964) positions place in the human mind, and argues that symbolic realisation of the **image** of place as a **memory** augments the value of reality. In Bachelard's argument, place is deeply symbolic; for example, the physical configuration of a house has a psychological effect on its inhabitants. To him the house as a place is host to a number of social and symbolic activities: the memories people have from such a place. The more hidden, mysterious corners, the more the house has memories, and the chief benefit of this place is to provide comfort to daydream and to allow one to dream in peace (Bachelard, 1964).

Then he moves to express that it is essential to examine the localisation in human memories. In this regard he introduces the term topoanalysis: the systematic psychological study of the environment of people's intimate lives (Bachelard, 1964). Therefore it can be argued that the experience of place is shaped by spaces we know from the past; the **memory of past** embedded within people, the emotional–symbolic space and the material–spatial space are intertwined to create such experience.

Environmental disciplines have been directly influenced by contemporary philosophy. In a search for the roots of urbanism, Cuthbert (2006) highlights phenomenology and sociology as two significant contributors into the study of city places. The most important applications of phenomenological philosophy have been in the context of creating place (Aravot, 2002). In this respect, philosophical expressions in sociology and anthropology have examined the people–place relationship in its social context. This examination is concerned with understanding how spatial configurations shape social relationships such as culture and identity (Foucault, 1986; Harvey, 1996). For this group of sociological philosophers, place is the expression of ideology and depends upon the social relationship. In similar fashion, Lefebvre (1991) argues that place is a lived experience of space, and is transformed through a political and ideological process. To Lefebvre, place is a result of spatial practice; it is generated as a social product through human activity and social positioning of physical space.

2.4.1 Implications for the theoretical framework

Each of the stated definitions of place in philosophy appears to state one or more characteristics of a multifaceted concept of place. Indeed, the diversity in the definition of place arises mainly from the fact that place is both a spatial and a social concept. Moreover, for socio-spatial dimensions, place is also the product of the symbolic formation of this relationship. In this respect, any study of place should address these interrelated dimensions.

From the philosophical point of view, place might be seen as a physical container, social relationship and symbolic presentation. Here the study of place can refer to presence of self, presence of other, location, memory from past and image, or the combination of these key attributes. However these attributes are not solely located in any dimension, and they can be seen as the socio-spatial-symbolic interaction of people and place.

Based on the philosophical interpretation of place, in order to analyse place, social relationships have to be considered with respect to the spatial fabric that contains them; however, place is reciprocally the product of the symbolic formation of this relationship. Issues such as the social limits of spatiality, identity and different cultural representations of place are the results of different symbolic interpretations and an understanding of the two other dimensions of spatial and social attributes.

What has been discussed so far as the philosophical interpretation of place is illustrated in Figure 2.1. Where the interpretation of each dimension is complex and not reducible to a single qualification, nonetheless the tendency towards each is not the same. It appears that spatial attributes as the container of other two dimensions, social and symbolic, are the essential specification of place in philosophical thought. It can also be hypothesised that, while the impact of the spatial attributes is greater than the other two components, the orientation of philosophical place tends to be towards spatial-symbolic dimensions.

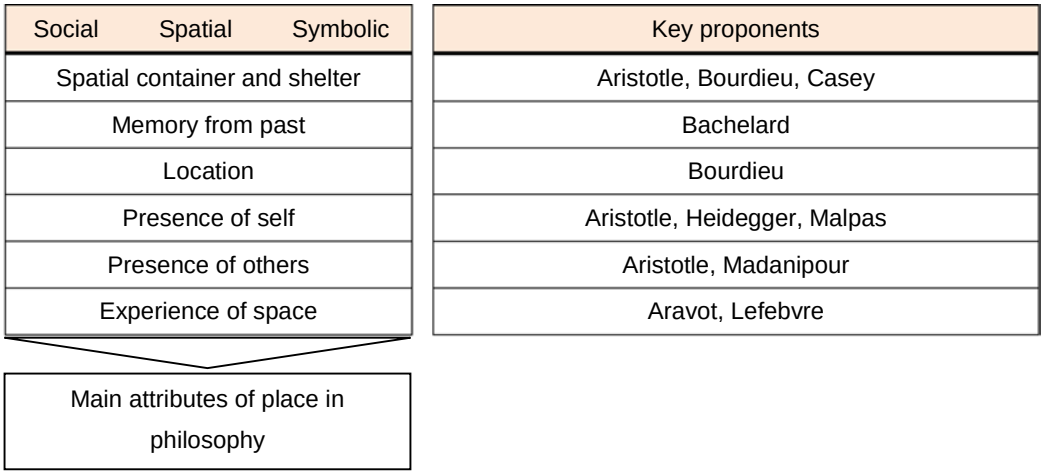


Figure 2.1: Main attributes of place in philosophical approach to the study of place, within the realm of social, spatial and symbolic contexts.

2.5 Attributes of place from geographical perspectives

The understanding of place and its implications in urban life has also been studied by geographers. Their approach to place, within a variety of conceptual foundations, has been categorised into various sub-disciplines – mainly urban geography, political geography and humanistic geography.

Geography is essentially characterised as a spatial subject, a discipline which has **place** as one of its principal matters of study (Cresswell, 2004). The contribution of geographical studies is made through the ways they explore hidden corners of the built and natural environments and examine places, especially by those people who are creating them (Ford, 2011) and by the study of the relationship between people and place.

Although the word ‘place’ has always been used in geography, a new conceptualisation of place, since the 1970s, has seen the concept of place as a meaningful site, consisting of location, locale and sense of place. In this definition of place, people encounter a combination of **materiality, meaning** and **practice** (Cresswell, 2009).

Traditionally, geography has been concerned with the study of the earth’s environments and peoples, and the interaction between them (Thrift & Kitchin, 2009). Urban geography is generally concerned with urban form, morphology and the analysis of the internal structure of the city. It also examines the impact of social and environmental changes on the pattern of urban form (Knox, 1995; Hall, 2006; Pacione, 2009). Although urban geography is not concerned with the conceptualisation of place, it uses place-based

concepts, in particular ‘sense of place’ in both scales, local and global, to analyse how a particular physical environment generates a sense of place (Pacione, 2009). Hall (2006) highlights the importance of understanding sense of place as a key component of place, providing sense of **safety, comfort and belonging** (p.124).

From a different perspective, political geographers examine the interfaces between politics and geography, focusing on spatial dimensions of power and the relationships at different scales of spatial configuration from local to global (Short, 1993; Cox, 2002, 2005). Here ‘place’ is value-free, reduced to a location as a specific point in space, and can be defined as territory and particular **identity**. While territory represents a formal definition of this portion of space, it is also described by a specific identity and characteristics.

Although territory and identity could be seen as two key attributes of place, this interpretation of place is in contrast with that of human geographers. In human terms, the essential of place lies beyond geographical space; here the focus is on the experience that people have by being in the environment, and places are the centre of felt value (Tuan, 1977).

Human geographers have studied the concept of place in depth (Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1977; Buttimer & Seamon, 1980). The rise of human geography follows dissatisfaction with the philosophical definition of place, and criticisms of the Modernists’ approach, the spread of technology, the destruction of landscape and modern approach to urbanism in the 1970s. The focus of the literature and theories in this discipline is on the loss of a sense of place.

The crux of this dissatisfaction is that other disciplines built environment are preoccupied with the material objectives of the spatial environment. In contrast, human geography concentrates on the cognitive aspects of human relationships with place. To describe a place which has lost its identifiable characteristics, Relph (1976) introduces the term ‘**placelessness**’ to highlight the importance of **sense of place** and **identity**. He defines placelessness as the weakening of distinct and diverse experiences and identity of places, and continues to explain placelessness as both an environment without significant places, and the underlying attitude which does not acknowledge the significance of places (p. 147).

A key attribute of place for humanistic geography is human **knowledge** and **familiarity**. Tuan (1980) argues that there is a ‘knowing’ that is the result of familiarity through long residence, and a ‘knowing’ that is the result of conscious effort. He calls the former

rootedness and the latter explicit knowledge or sense of place. He then argues that the conditions for rootedness, which are lack of knowledge of other places and other people, are no longer available in modem society, and therefore all that can be achieved is a sense of place; therefore, the role of place is crucial, as social and spatial attributes can be used to create a positive sense of place. Knowledge and familiarity of place are rooted in **historical significance** and **past memory** of place, and also increase the feeling of safety (Lake & Townshend, 2013).

As familiarity, knowledge, childhood memory and past experience are recognised as reasons for people's preferences for place by a number of studies (Canter & Thorne, 1972; Monroe & Kaplan, 1988; Kaplan & Herbert, 1989), some researchers suggest a preference for '**novelty**' and sense of newness (Purcell & Nasar, 1992; Nasar, 1994) and argue that a sense of novelty and newness increases the interest and excitement of place. However, familiarity and novelty are not in conflict, as they represent two different attributes of place. While familiarity is a perceptual quality and refers to the people's experience and memory, novelty is associated with the properties, mainly physical, of place, when people encounter something new. Nasar (2000) describes that people may have no experience of a park in a nearby neighbourhood, but if that park has similar features, form and complexity, and relationships to those which they have experienced before, then possibly they would recognise it as a park with similar opportunities.

Tuan (1977, 1980) considers place to be at the centre of human awareness. He uses the notion of 'sense of place' as a highly subjective set of feelings and impressions that individuals attach to specific locations. In this regard, place is an intangible network of **meaning**, and not merely a physical point. Tuan (1977) asserts that 'place is security', and that favourite places are those where humans' fundamental needs are observed, such as the need for safety and security which is gained through the **historical sense of continuity** (p.137) at a personal level.

The shift from space to place is one of the major contributions of human geography, revealing a transition from abstract disembodied space to the real, experienced, embodied, personal places of individual worlds; a transition from a physical-spatial place to a social-symbolic one. Within this approach, Relph (1976) explains that the essence of place is in the capacity to make spatial relationship with the people's experience. Relph focuses on two aspects of place identity: one is people's identity of place, and the other is how people identify themselves with place. By the identity of a place, he argues that the 'persistence of sameness and unity' of a place's character allows that place to be identified as different from other places (Relph, 1976, p.45).

This place encompasses three key components (Figure 2.2), each irreducible to one another. These are: 1) **physical setting: image and appearance**; 2) observable **social activities and events**; and 3) **meaning and intentions** in regard to that place**,** created through people's experiences (p.61).

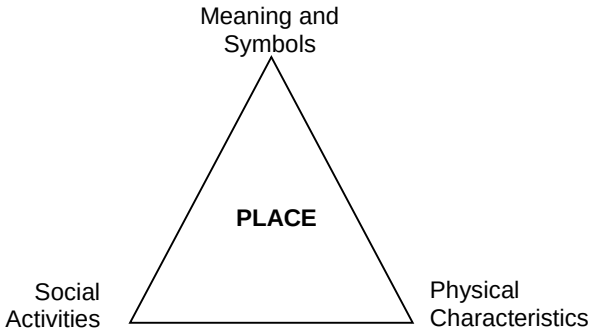


Figure 2.2: Illustration of Relph's definition of place (1976)

However, Relph argues that, most essentially, places are 'significant centres of our immediate experiences of the world' (Relph, 1976, p.141). To understand places, one needs a way to describe a particular place experience; for Relph, the key to this lived experience is 'identity with place', the degree of attachment and concern that people have for a specific location or place. He defines this as the concept of 'insideness'.

Feeling inside rather than outside a place, as Relph suggests, has a profound impact on the people–place relationship. This is where people feel they are here rather than there, **feel safe, enclosed, relaxed and comfortable**. Therefore place, unlike space, is not an abstraction and an empty physical container; it is the context of human activity, where people want to be; in this context place is a manifestation of '**presence of self**'. Places are alive, grow, change and decline with the people who preserve or ignore them (Cresswell, 2004). In this conceptualisation, space provides the context for place, but derives its meaning from particular places (Relph, 1976).

More recently, Massey (2005) argues that place can be contextualised as timeless and bounded, and maintains that place is not static. She suggests the simultaneous conceptualisation of spatial as social and social as spatial; in this context place becomes a moment in an ever-changing social-spatial relationship at all scales. For Massey (1994) place is a process, or as Creswell (2004) puts it, it is a way of knowing rather than a result; it does not necessarily have the same meaning every time to everybody. In this sense, Massey's definition of place as a celebration of diversity and hybridity is different in comparison to traditional human geographers such as Tuan (1977) and Relph (1976).

In contrast to a temporal concept of place, Harvey (1996; 2009) argues that place is a 'conditional form of permanence in the flow of time and space'. In a different language, Tuan (1977) illustrates this notion when he asserts that 'if we think of space as allows movement, then place is pause; each pause in movement makes it possible for a location to be transformed into a place' (p.6).

Seamon (1979), in a similar fashion, by employing a phenomenological approach for the study of place, develops three primary themes: Movement, Rest and Encounter. In the study of everyday urban life, he describes the different modes of spatial experiences. He proposes these three overarching thematic structures and argues that they show the essential core of people's behaviour in place and involvement with their everyday experience in their environment. Movement explores activities in the physical setting, the role of body, habitual movement and the **everyday routine use of place**. Rest examines human **attachment** and **personalisation**, and the way that people stay in a place; and finally Encounter considers the ways that people **observe and watch** and interact with the world in which they live, and their visual and cognitive engagement with the environment. He also finds that favourite places become part of regular routine and choice of habitual route (Seamon, 1979).

Although Tuan (1977) and Seamon (1979) both propose a behavioural description of the transformation of a spatial location into place, it seems that this is not sufficient to make a place, as these actions do not engender a sense of existential belonging. As one might pause or rest while encountering the environment with no sense of meaning and values. Symbolic meanings are also an important aspect of place, because they underpin the layers of understanding of a place; yet recent scholars agree that symbolic aspects of environment have too often been ignored in the analysis (Lang *et al.*, 1974; Nasar, 1988, 1989, 1998).

Places are not just collections of material artefacts; they also project ideologies and cultural values. Consequently, symbolic meanings are not merely personal and individual, although the individual producer's input has significant impact; they are mediated through wider situations derived from social, spatial and cultural-symbolic contexts. Alternatively, meaning can be projected upon places through their representation in a variety of media: image, form, shape, colour and so on (Hall, 2006).

2.5.1 Implications for the theoretical framework

It is conceivable that one of the most important contributions of geography to the study of place is the distinction between an abstract realm of space and an experienced and felt world of place.

The discussion of place from human geographers' point of view reveals that, to understand place, one needs to understand the relationship between people and place. One of the chief contributions of geography to the notion of place is that humans do not live in an abstract and physical framework of spatial relationships, but in a world of meaning (Cresswell, 2004). People live in and are surrounded by places in their social relationships; they experience different perspectives of place and such experiences encourage them to ask about the meanings inherent in place. Figure 2.3 illustrates the key attributes of place in geography.

Social Spatial Symbolic	Key Proponents
Belonging	Hall,Tuan
Emotion	Bondi, Thrift, Tuan
Everyday routine	Buttimer & Seamon, Seamon
Historical significance	Lake, Tuan
Identity	Relph, Seamon
Image & appearance	Relph
Knowledge & familiarity	Cresswell, Relph, Tuan
Location	Cresswell
Meaning	Nasar, Tuan
Novelty (Newness)	Kaplan, Nasar, Purcell
Observe and watch	Goffman, Relph, Seamon,
Continuity (personal history)	Lalli , Lowenthal, Tuan
Personalisation	Buttimer & Seamon, Seamon
Psychological comfort	Tuan
Safety	Hall, Tuan
Presence of self	Harvey, Relph, Soja

Main attributes of place in geography

Figure 2.3: Main attributes of place in geographical studies

The orientation of place in human geography, as discussed, is more towards understanding the meaning of place in relation to the experience of social and spatial dimensions. Some of the place-based concepts such as place identity, sense of place and attaching significance to place are amongst the most important concepts that make a place humanised.

2.6 Concept of place in built environment studies

The goal of architecture is the identification of place (Unwin, 2003). Historically, built environment, in its diverse sub-disciplines, has created spaces with the intention of creating meaningful and significant places. But what makes a place significant and meaningful is still central to academics and practice in architecture, landscape architecture, urban design and urban planning.

For a better understanding of the concept of place in built environment studies, it is helpful to explain the approaches from different related programmes: architecture, urban planning, landscape architecture and urban design. Throughout the literature of place in this field, a lack of theoretical attention is shown, where the trend of the approaches towards place generally follows the other disciplines such as philosophy and geography (Castello, 2010).

2.6.1 Architecture

Phenomenology is a key point of contact between philosophy and architectural studies. Following the philosophical works of Heidegger (1962, 1971), Norberg-Schulz (1971, 1980, 1984) begins his studies with phenomenological relationships, using the notion of place to propose architecture which emphasises the quality of human existence. He argues that the concept of place is central to architecture, and that architecture should be considered with respect to **meaning** as much as to the **physical quality** of the environment (Norberg-Schulz, 1971).

By using the Roman concept of ‘spirit of place’ (*genius loci*), Norberg-Schulz (1971) defines place as space in addition to character, and argues further that the purpose of architecture is therefore to make a site become a place, and to uncover the meaning that it potentially presents in the environment (Norberg-Schulz, 1980). Therefore, the important role of architecture is to create a physical feature of place, which allows people to ‘dwell’ in response. Here, ‘dwelling’ means a state of being, to be at peace in a protected place (Norberg-Schulz, 1971).

In architecture's approach to the study of place, Rossi (1982) and Norberg-Schulz (1980) both view place as a work of art; Norberg-Schulz (1980) argues that a sense of place represents the sum of all physical as well as **symbolic values** found in the cultural and natural environment. Specifically, he points to four elements, which include the topography of the earth's surface, the cosmological light conditions, buildings, and the symbolic and existential meanings in the cultural landscape. These elements are proposed as the key features defining the spirit of place, and emphasise the role of the **physical environment in fostering symbolic meaning**, thus distinguishing it from the more poetic spirit of place. Furthermore, Norberg-Schulz conceptualises place as something more than a measurable quantity of space and an abstract Cartesian location; it is therefore qualitative, full of symbols and meaning, a phenomenon that cannot be reduced to any of its individual properties.

From a different perspective, Pallasmaa (2005) argues that the task of architecture 'is to create places to embody lived experience' (p.71). Pallasmaa claims that architecture reflects the material world as well as ideas and images of an ideal life. To him, the aim of architecture is to turn materiality into a positive experience of place and meaning, a rich experience of place that all sensory realms interact and fuse into a **memorable image** of the place. He highlights the goal of architecture as the ability to symbolise the human existence by conveying meaning. Therefore it can be argued that form has no significance by itself, but it can communicate meanings through the physical images, often loaded with symbols, and associated experiences of place. These experiences are highly dependent upon **memory**, in which the image of the present will give rise to the image of memory. In this way, memory and imagination are in constant interaction.

Another line of research in the analysis of places and urban form in architecture is the work of historians (Benevolo, 1980; Kostof, 1991, 1992) who have tried to approach urban places from the viewpoint of the process of history and as heritage, linked to the contents of social and spatial development of place. Benevolo (1980) conceptualises the formation of urban places as a result of historic need; for him, place can be imagined as a personal history, a continuing process of personal interaction with place.

Kostof (1991, p.8), argues that any urban form is a process in which the spatial frame adjusts itself to changing social needs. From this point of view, place and its process of formation must be pursued through the people, their needs and the historical change of the built form over a period of time. To sum up, Kostof's view implies that place can be conceived as a process, through the continuity of personal history, rather than seeing it

as a finite entity, or a left over plot of land between buildings, and that it is conditioned by many factors in which people's social interactions and needs play an important role.

Notions of what constitute a place inevitably change over time, reflecting the changes of what is valued in society, both culturally and socially. For example, industrial buildings in Britain which were originally due to be demolished in the 1960s are now valued and celebrated as an example of Britain's industrial heritage, and this is true for many places in the public arena across all cultures.

2.6.2 Place in urban design studies

Urban design is primarily concerned with place and the process of placemaking. It embraces the way places function as well as how they look and is concerned with the connections between people and places (DETR & CABE, 2000). In this context the way people understand, conceptualise and evaluate the urban environment has been emphasised by many scholars within urban design theories and practice (Lynch, 1960, 1981; Appleyard, 1979, 1981; Rossi, 1982; Carr, 1991; Bentley, 1992).

The prime concept in urban design theories is to allow people to make a strong connection with urban places. As people relate to the social and spatial context of the city in the public domain (Carr *et al.*, 1992), therefore, a main focus of urban design is on the production of place within the public domain.

Urban design, as the main drive in design and development of places in the public arena of cities in recent years, has made the greatest contribution to the identification of key attributes of place at both the theoretical and practical levels. On the theoretical level, various urban design analyses adopt the similar conceptualisation of everyday urbanism (Chase, 1999). This form of analysis focuses on the main elements of the urban fabric which represent placemaking in the public domain (Miles, 2000). It is what ordinary people do in their everyday lives: responding to a network of urban form that facilitates human interaction and produces joy and comfort (Poorpirar, 2001).

Many urban design theoreticians and practitioners deal with the conceptualisation of public space (Madanipour, 1996, 1997, 2000, 2003; Carmona *et al.*, 2010; Cuthbert, 2011), management of public space (Carmona *et al.*, 2008; Carmona, 2010a, b) and the design of public space (Gehl, 1987; Lang, 1996; Moughtin, 1999; Carmona *et al.*, 2010; Gehl, 2010). This section is organised into the following six categories, which are structured into various degrees of specific theoretical and professional approach: successful places in the public arena of cities; the perceptual and cognitive approach;

the design-led approach to place; the visual-aesthetic approach to place; the social approach; and the meaning of place and the symbolic approach.

2.6.2.1 'Successful places' in the public arena of cities

A large number of publications have emphasised the quality of place, mainly focused on the development of new public spaces and enhancing existing public spaces. A large body of descriptive literature identifies main attributes that define successful places in the public arena (Whyte, 1980; Bentley *et al*., 1985; Tibbalds, 1992; Gehl, 1996; Gehl and Gemzøe, 1996, 2001; DETR & CABE, 2000; Project for Public Spaces, 2000). However the literature on what people perceive to be a 'good place' is inconsistent, and mostly concentrates on city centres, shopping centres, parks and urban green spaces.

The Department of Environment and the Urban and Economic Development Group (DoE & URBED, 1994, p.152) analyse city centre vitality through an extensive research methodology including consultation, questionnaire and case studies, and suggest that good places in the public arena of cities require **high-quality design, good access,** and **allow walkability for people to freely move about, safely and comfortably**.

Townshend & Madanipour (2008) assess **vitality** in public spaces and develop good practice guidance for town centres development and management. They emphasise the need for busy and active places which encourage all groups in society to use public spaces. Vitality in the public places of cities is a manifestation of the vitality of society itself. To promote such a vital and energised community, **participation and involvement** is vital; the involvement of all citizens from diverse cultural backgrounds, and more importantly of children, is particularly beneficial (*ibid*). Vitality and safety also are highly related. To feel safe in a place, the place should be busy and vital and animated (Townshend & Madanipour, 2008), but at the same time to perceive a place as busy, animated and vital, it should be safe (Tiesdell & Oc, 1998).

The Department of the Environment (DoE, 1997) conducted the appraisals of 20 successful urban spaces within 285 local authorities. Their definition of places in the public arena of cities included parks, urban green spaces, squares and streets. Based on this study, in addition to the findings of DoE and URBED (1994), they added other preferred qualities for a successful place, such as **cleanliness, quality of air** and **quietness**. They also maintain that public choice of places, in terms of facilities, should provide good pedestrian routes, car parks, cycle routes, **good places to sit and other street furniture**, **meeting places**, improved public **safety and security,** clear signposting, and **accessibility** for all.

The ability to enter a place is basic to the use of it; thus **access** is an important prerequisite in order to realise many other dimensions of place quality. Lynch (1981) states that accessible space is the first criterion of having a well-used place. He believes that cities should not only provide good physical access through, for example, good public transportation, but also symbolic means of access that give the sense of support, comfort and sociability. It also has been found that access is essential if people intend to attach meaning to a place. Without right of access to a place, loss of interest is highly probable.

Francis (1989) recognises three types of access which are essential in public places. The first type of access is 'physical access' to a square or park. Devices such as doors, walls and locked gates are used in many spaces to prevent people from using the space. Appleyard (1981) reports that heavy car traffic was perceived as a threat for street life and, where residents could reduce the number of cars in their environment, the level of use of space increased, and as a result the quality of social interaction also improved.

Social accessibility is the second type of access that refers to the availability of access by all people from any social class or group. The third type of access is visual access, or the ability to see inside a place. In order to have an accessible place without barriers, it should also be well connected to the **wider surrounding context**. Whyte (1980) found that the connection of a public place to adjacent pavements is a vital aspect of access that lets people enter them. Whyte's finding emphasises the spatial integration of space at the local and global levels. Symbolic access is the fourth type of access that is introduced, by Carr *et al*. (1992). The presence of cues – either people or design elements – suggests who is and is not welcome in the place. The cues signal to the potential users of the place by different means, in this case more symbolic means (an invitation or refusal), or they may stay neutral.

Hass-Klau *et al*. (1999), through extensive empirical research in 11 European cities (in the UK, Germany and Italy), identify a set of key attributes that make public places popular. These include: the opportunity to sit (informally and formally) and relax; the opportunity to **watch other people**, or **the natural environment** (especially water features); sufficient pedestrian through-flow; and, importantly, **good feelings about the ambience**. Finally, they maintain that in general, people enjoy places that are **well integrated within the wider context**. Townshend & Madanipour (2008) also affirm that places in the public arena work well when they are linked to the wider context of urban spaces.

While some of the literature relates to town centres, parks and other urban areas, many of the key attributes apply to places in the public arena of cities, with a variety of arrangement and scales.

2.6.2.2 Place as visual-aesthetic attribute

As there is no single approach to studying place, it benefits from a diversity of perceptions which a variety of research has conceptualised. The earliest is from architecture, which mainly emphasised the aesthetic qualities of place through interpretation of the **image and appearance of place**. This can be seen first in the work of Sitte (1965) [1889], who influenced later views concerning the way to approach the traditional built form. In considering the physical qualities of medieval cities, he mostly relied on serial vision and composition notions (Moughtin, 2003). This tradition was continued by Unwin (1909, cited in Carmona *et al*., 2003) and later Saarinen (1943), who recognised the beauty of medieval towns due to a correlation between the whole image of the places rather than their individual parts, and more importantly, their relatedness with the surrounding nature. The distilled ideas of this tradition reinforced the editorial board of the *Architectural Review* in 1940 which sought to conceptualise architecture and planning as visual arts (Bandini, 1992).

Cullen (1971) perceives urban places as the art of relationships (the drama of juxtaposition), and how bringing buildings collectively together in such a way that a coherent drama is released, creating a great sense of visual pleasure or how to 'appreciate a town as a series of unfolding pictures' (Moughtin, 2003, p.225).

To Cullen, **discovery** is an important quality of place, the desire for stimulation and the delight of experiencing new and pleasurable places. Discovery is one of the reasons that people are attracted to a place; when places are inhabited in the fullest sense they become embodied with the kinds of myth and mystery (Reynold, 2004). In other words, **exploration** is a social need that drives people to move and find new places and things and stimulate their sense of imagination. A sense of discovery can strengthen the people–place relationship. **Discovery** and surprise in the context of urban places is the opportunity to observe different objects and people in a place, in a variety of activities in which they engage, and to explore different parts of places. It is about diversity in the physical design and changing vistas.

The succession of views and vistas also enhance the sense of discovery. Cullen (1971) suggests that the experience of discovery usually contains a sense of mystery; following the concept of 'here and there', he explains that 'here' is known but the beyond is

unknown, infinite, mysterious, or is hidden inside. Mystery and the discovery of unknown corners of places can stimulate the joy and ultimately the satisfaction of place (Thomson, 2002).

Moughtin (2003) and Bacon (1985) also view urban places as a work of art which is constituted of two elements: 'architecture of movement and architecture of repose' (Madanipour, 1990, p.9). Although they only consider the visual impact of the place on those who use it and those involved in 'the manipulation of the elements of landscape and streetscape for environmental improvement' (Bandini, 1992, cited in Madanipour, 1996, p.45), their views build an important platform for analysis of urban places, especially their spatial dimension, because they emphasise the composition and relatedness aspects of the built form.

As it is based 'solely upon taste' (Bandini, 1992, p.147), and the spatial and symbolic quality of place, the application of this tradition, without considering other approaches, does not cover the multidimensionality of place, because it lacks the social dimension of place. This can be recognised as the main failure of this approach. Regardless of the limitations of the visual-aesthetic approach, it can be recognised as a valid approach when used with others dealing with the social dimension of the place.

More importantly, most scholars dealing with the built form, especially the qualities of the physical form of the public realm (as the main concern of urban design) are still using this approach (Moughtin, 1999, 2003). Furthermore, the importance of this approach can also be recognised in the contemporary notion of urban design, which is simultaneously concerned with the design of urban space as an aesthetic entity and as a behavioural setting. However, it can be regarded as a first step in analysing the built form in respect of aesthetic or functional aspects, which will be enhanced later by the perspectives of other approaches, in order to identify and understand the reasons, the purposes and the underlying rationale of place (Stea, 1997).

Urban designers, amongst architects and landscape architects, have been concerned with creating aesthetic experiences for people (Cuthbert, 2003). Inam (2002) identifies a school of thought in urban design which sees the profession as an extension to architecture, only on a larger scale. To this group of urban designers, aesthetic impression of physical form is the key for success of a place which manifests itself in an architectural design. Wunderlich (2013) argues that a place in an urban setting can be observed as an aesthetic experience. To him, place is a form of representation of time in space, with sensual and expressive qualities.

Moughtin (2003, p.112) describes the importance of visual quality of urban environments, which can be perceived by pedestrians: ‘the scenery in the town is presented to pedestrians not as a constant evolving motion picture, but more like a series of clips or snapshots of memorable events on the route’. Cullen (1971) calls this method of perceiving place 'Serial Vision'. He further elaborates the idea of townscape and argues that ‘it is almost entirely through vision that environment is comprehended’ (p. 8).

Jarvis (1980) finds two main trends in the study of urban places; the artistic tradition and the social usage approach. The artistic tradition predominantly focuses on the **visual quality** of the urban places, and the centre of its attention is towards the physical product of the built environment rather than the cultural, social and symbolic meanings in urban environments.

Sitte (1965) [1889] is amongst the most influential in this artistic tradition. He attempts to formulate an urban theory based on aesthetic reading of an urban image. This was regarded as extremely important in the first half of the twentieth century, and demonstrated that it was important to contrast negative issues, such as neglected places (Gosling & Maitland, 1984). Sitte places an emphasis on the conditions of the streets, squares and neighbourhoods as they related to residents’ needs more than a century ago. The emphasis in current research reflects the significant considerations about making places with identity, liveability and environmental responsiveness (Krier, 1979; Bentley *et al.*, 1985; Butina Watson & Bentley, 2007).

Visual appreciation of urban environments is also a product of perception and cognition, as mentioned in the previous section. Behavioural science, and in particular environmental psychology, are helping the professionals involved in urban design to analyse and understand the mechanisms involved in aesthetic appreciation of users of urban environment. The importance of aesthetic quality in response to urban environment has attracted the attention of many scholars in the field. In an early study, Canter (1969) shows that one of the major factors in response to urban places is **pleasantness and satisfaction**, which could be the result of aesthetic and evaluative factors. In another study, Lowenthal and Riel (1972) found that when people use their own judgement and descriptors of an urban environment, the aesthetic variables, namely **architectural quality** and detailed **design elements**, are the most important data.

2.6.2.3 Perceptual and cognitive approach

Studies of human senses have made a major contribution to the development of knowledge and understanding of place. The first step of perception of a place is when

information about the environment is gathered, followed by the processing of the information to make sense of it. The most important sense in the perception of place is **visual**; however, other senses such as smell, taste, hearing and touch are all involved in this complicated process. Further processing of the information including storing, organising and recalling is then conducted, which is labelled as environmental cognition.

Lynch (1960), in line with the approach of human geography (e.g. Tuan, Relph), applies the premise that reality is a projection of human imagination to the fields of architecture, urban design and planning, and that the mutual and perpetual relationship between man and his environment has brought about the important theory of imageability and has led to the establishment of an approach and structure of inquiry for analysis of place. He develops an important approach for analysing a city's structure, as he divides the content of the city's image into physical forms such as paths, nodes, districts, landmarks and edges.

Although Lynch (1960) relies on people's perception of the image of place and its legibility, his final result is an abstraction which implicitly reduces the place to the sum of its physical structures and his study 'deliberately de-emphasizes the meanings that places hold for their inhabitants' (Vale & Warner, 2001). More importantly, as the image is supplemented and constructed by exposure to visual media rather than by direct experience of place, his study rarely explores such points in the knowledge of the people as the users of place. Another important notion is that the image of place is not static; it is subject to constant change by a variety of interventions.

According to Lynch (1960), the ability of structuring and identifying the environment is a vital skill as a human. In this process many kind of clues are used, chiefly through the visual senses of shape, colour and movement as well as through smell, sound and touch. People may experience places by their individual aspects and with specific actions, but these sensory stimuli are usually perceived through an entire image.

However, while visual qualities of place are predominantly realised through vision, the urban environment is not only perceived visually (Carmona *et al*., 2010). In exploring the relationships between people and places, the cognitive approach of Lynch (1960, 1981) is amongst the most influential theoretical and methodological perspectives in understanding aspects of a good place in a city. Lynch (1960) codifies individuals' perceptions of urban environments to demonstrate that they use specific features (**paths, edges, nodes, landmarks and districts**) to read their urban environment. Lynch calls this quality '**legibility**': the ease with which people can recognise and navigate. Places have different degrees of legibility, which relates to '**imageability**', comprising three

elements: identity, structure and meaning (Lynch, 1960). Lynch further argues (1981) that a good place should represent people's culture, and make them aware of **their community, their past and the social network** in the city.

The main contribution of Lynch, from the point of view of this study, is the recognition of locality of place, where the entire context of the image of place supports the connection of people and place, and lack of proper connection results in the loss of meaning (Lynch, 1972). In examining the relationship between people and the elements of the urban environment, as opposed to the examination of the physical form of urban environment, Lynch is also concerned with people's perceptions, mental images and the symbolic qualities of places, where he argues that images of the environment are the result of a two-way process between the people and the environment.

2.6.2.4 Design-led approach

Generally, the method of analysis that involves possible use of place is recognised in urban design as 'design approach' (Madanipour, 1996; Pavlides, 1997) or 'product oriented' (Carmona *et al.*, 2010). It aims to document the quality of places in relation to their spatial context – the natural and built environments. More precisely, it is an approach to studying and assessing place from the point of its components. From this perspective, this approach emphasises the spatial dimension as 'the unavoidable art' which creates a 'physical vessel, a container, for human activity' (Roth, 1993).

Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) identify a set of problems that urban designers should consider in the design of places, and propose a number of key attributes for a good urban environment. Urban places should be liveable: places where people can live **comfortably**, have **privacy**, **relax**, and **revive themselves**; places which people can feel **belong** to them, individually and collectively. A successful urban environment should **encourage public life** directly through its public spaces, and it should be **accessible** for all. Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) maintain that all good places should possess these key qualities.

To achieve these goals, they define five physical characteristics or 'prerequisites' of a 'sound' urban environment: 1) a **liveable** urban environment; 2) intensity of **function;** 3) integrated **activities** – living, working, shopping within reasonable **distance** of each other, 4) public space to be defined, particularly by its buildings; and 5) distinct **buildings with complex arrangements and relationships**.

For Bentley *et al.* (1985), places should support users' freedom and personal choices. They argue that the creation of a successful place is affected by the choices people could

make in the urban environment. Although Bentley *et al*. do not articulate the type of choices, they maintain that maximising the degree of choice available to users could affect the quality of place. For example, choices such as: where people could or could not go, the range of functions and uses available, how easily people can find the opportunities offered, **adaptability of place for different purposes**, whether the detailed appearance of the place demonstrates the choices available, the choices of sensory experience, and finally the extent to which they could put their stamp on a place (appropriation).

Adaptability as the ability of a place to be changed according to the users' needs is an important quality of a place. The change quality is similar to the concept of fit that Lynch (1981) has introduced into the field of urban design. One of the qualities of place is the degree to which the form and capacity of place is designed and arranged to match the widely varying needs of residents (Rapoport 1977, 2000).

The ability to change in place can result in creating temporary place or permanent place. In a temporary change, users bring their own elements such as furniture, stalls or picnics, etc., but when their visit to the place ends they take their 'loose parts' with them (Nicholson, 1971). These kinds of places are called 'place ballet' by Seamon and Nordin (1980), and they describe how, in these kinds of places, people can bring elements of change to the place and fit them for their required use and then take those elements back. Another type of change that fits the place for specific use is permanent change. In the permanent change of a place, the issue of modifiability or adaptability of space is an essential factor that affects the level of control of the place by users.

Bentley *et al*. (1985) propose a framework comprising seven key attributes for making places which are responsive to human desire: **permeability, variety, legibility, robustness, visual appropriateness, richness and personalisation**.

Places should be permeable; in other words, **accessible** through a variety of alternative routes. **Variety** describes the choices of experience which a place can offer, while **legibility** is the degree of ease with which the environment can be understood. **Robustness** describes a place which can adapt multiple uses and thus offer their users more choice than those places where design limits them to a single use. **Visual appropriateness** is the quality of detailed appearance of a place, which informs people of the choices offered. **Richness** describes a quality of place that can increase the choices of sensory experiences, providing a sense of **joy, comfort and relaxation**; and finally **personalisation** is the capability of place to become personalised. Later, Bentley

(1990) includes a further three attributes – **cleanliness**, **resource efficiency and biotic support** – as he suggests the previous framework lacks environmental attributes.

One way in which Bentley *et al.* (1985) contribute to the study of place is their definition of successful place, on the basis of the choices available to the user. This perspective is particularly important because it provides a framework to understand the physical characteristics of place as an active contributor to the quality of place. However, it can be argued that not all the attributes mentioned refer to place. Permeability, variety, and legibility could be employed in larger-scale environments, contributing to the urban setting's large spatial structure, whereas other attributes could be associated with smaller-scale environments: human-scale places with individual buildings or groups of physical features.

A decade after Bentley, Llewelyn Davies (2000) confirmed the importance of Bentley's findings and argued that public places are a focus for social activity and the design of such places should support **comfort** and **social activity**. They called for places that encourage human senses, not only visually, but also by sound, touch and smell; places that are **distinctive in terms of design with typical local character; places which are clean, free of clutter and legible (through design, lighting and signage)**.

Following Llewelyn Davies, the Audit Commission (2002) defined these attributes within the 'liveability agenda', which claims it is vital to design high-quality favourite public places. They also affirmed that people from diverse social backgrounds generally want their places to be: **pleasant, attractive, well designed, safe, clean and free from noise, functional, diverse, catering for everyday needs, peaceful and lively, with opportunities for play**.

From a more practical approach, the Project for Public Space (PPS) (2000), analysed a large number of public places across the world, and found four key attributes for a successful place: access and linkage, uses and activities, comfort and image, and sociability.

They argue that a 'great place' is **accessible** with good **linkage**; it is visible and connected to its surroundings visually and physically. This place can engage people's social and physical **use and activities**. Activities that places offer are the basic reasons that people choose a place. To PPS, a 'good place' is a **comfortable** one and provides a relaxed walkable and sittable environment. **Image** is another key attribute of a successful place: what people see visually and perceptually; views to and from a place and the adjacent context of place have a major impact on, for example, people's

perceptions about safety and cleanliness, and the place's character. Finally, a good place is a **sociable** place, one which provides opportunities for **meeting** friends, feeling **comfortable** and areas for interacting with strangers. For PPS, a place which does not fulfil these key attributes is very unlikely to become a successful place; it will be alienated and unusable, a non-place.

Smith *et al*. (1997) devise a similar list of attributes that a successful place should provide for people to meet their needs and desires. Based on an analysis of physical sights, they propose that a successful urban place should achieve **liveability, character, connection, mobility, personal freedom and diversity.**

Investigating human needs in public places, Carr *et al*. (1992) argue that to create a successful place, it is important to examine people's needs and assert that often underused and unsuccessful places are those that do not meet people's needs or properly serve important functions. They conclude with key reasons that explain people's needs in public places. While all may not be present in one place, they comprise accommodation of use in ways that offer **comfort, relaxation, active and passive engagement, discovery,** and **fun** (Carr *et al*., 1992; Francis, 2003). Fulfilling these needs, they often provide for public access, **freedom of action, choice, user control**, and symbolic – or in some cases real community – ownership.

To Carr *et al*. (1992) '**control**' is the key attribute for a successful place; it is about the degree of freedom, autonomy and motivation in decision-making and choices. Lynch (1981) finds that control is a very important quality in the urban context. He believes that control, or the lack of it, has strong consequences, which contribute either to anxiety or to satisfaction and pride. He recognises five forms of control: presence, use and action, appropriation, modification, and disposition. Description of these forms of control is helpful to understand how they can be acquired in places in the public arena of cities. Control by people in such places may also be interpreted as **participation and involvement** in placemaking processes: the ability to change, eliminate or reduce distractions, and in some degree to personalise the place.

According to Lynch (1981), **freedom of action** is the right of use and action, or to behave freely in a place or use its facilities. The users of place consciously and unconsciously recognise that the urban places are shared; they (should) act in a way so as not to disturb other people's rights in any way. Freedom of action in places in the public arena has close ties with the physical as well as the psychological comfort of people. The restriction of **psychological comforts** in place causes the restriction of some user groups,

especially women, the elderly and the disabled. The presence of people perceived as unpleasant in a place is a restriction on the use of place.

2.6.2.5 Social approach in urban design

Several writers support this idea of public places as arenas for social interaction, for active and social engagement with others (Lynch, 1992; Carr *et al*., 1992) and as connective tissue and social milieu (Hass-Klau *et al*., 1999; Jacobs, 1993; Moudon, 1987; etc.). Besides this, they enable people to discover self, others and the environment (Lynch, 1992, p.398; Carr *et al*., 1992, p.19). In other words, public places help individuals to understand their social status in natural ecosystems, and to develop their understanding of social orientation (Lynch, 1992).

Cities exist for processes of social relationships and for communication and exchange between people (Jacobs, 1961). Public places are the key medium through which these processes take place (Bentley, 1999). The public places of the city have been considered as one of its assets, a social capital that can be used in the social integration of its residents (Madanipour, 2003a). By welcoming everyone, these places bring together all groups of people regardless of their class, ethnic origin, gender or age, making it possible for them to intermingle (Madanipour, 1996, p.46).

The spatial form of place cannot be separated from the social processes that produce it. This notion, as adopted by Madanipour (1999) amongst others, asserts that 'it is the collective intentionality, the capacity of human to assign functions to symbolise these objects beyond their basic presence which makes them part of social reality' (Madanipour, 1999, p.880); in other words, meaningful. In this way, people feel connected to the larger social system (Alexander, 1977), reaffirming the identity of specific groups within the society. This characteristic makes places a common ground for social interaction, intermingling and communication. In this sense, the streets, squares and parks of a city give form to the flow of social and cultural exchange, where people carry out functional and ritual activities that bind a community, whether in the normal routines of daily life or in events and festivities (Carr *et al*., 1992).

For Jacobs (1961) and Walzer (1986), public places are those people share with strangers, people who are not their relatives, friends, or work associates; it is the space of coexistence and impersonal encounters, places to **see others and to be seen** as a key social activity. Knox (1987, p.357) equally argues that when different groups give different meanings to space, it becomes a multilayered place, reflecting the way places are socially constructed through various social activities.

Gehl (1987, 2010) recognises that the success of urban places depends on the relationship of the users' social activities and the quality of physical environment. He identifies three types of outdoor activities (Figure 2.4) that occur in urban places: 'necessary, optional and resultant or social'. Although Gehl recognises the importance of **social activity** as an essential element of place in the public arena, he puts extra emphasis on the spatial quality of outdoor places and claims that the quality of outdoor areas arguably increases the occurrence of optional activities. By increasing the levels of optional activities, the number of social activities usually rises substantially.

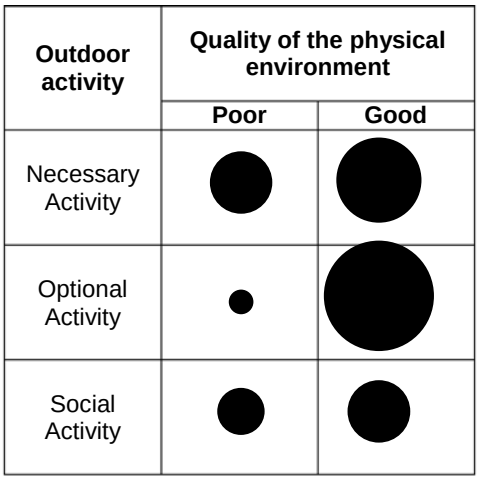


Figure 2.4: Graphic presentation of the relationship of quality of places and activities in the urban public arena, redrawn from Gehl (1987)

Comfort is a vital attribute of place (Tibbalds, 1992). People perceive comfort in places from **physical, psychological** and **symbolic** views. The human needs for food, shelter and a place to rest require a minimum comfort. Gehl (2006, 2009, 2010) describes some of the basic comfort needs in urban places as: protection and climatic consideration, such as sheltering from wind or rain and exposure to sun, depending on the seasonal and geographical context; arrangement of seating places; and physical and psychological security.

Gehl (2010) argues that the time that people spend in places in the city depends on feeling comfortable both **physically** and **psychologically**, and states that if the level of comfort is low, the time people spend in public spaces will be short (2010, p.127). Even if the environment is interesting and rich in experience, comfort is an essential need to encourage people to stay and experience the place. Furthermore, Gehl *et al*. (2006) move towards the identification of urban places which support these social activity aspects. They claim that the most visited places in the city have the greatest perceived quality, and then identify a number of qualities under three main attributes of **protection, comfort** and **enjoyment**. **Protection** focuses on a wide range of protective measures

that the place provides to minimise unpleasant experiences, including safety and security, shelter and protection from traffic. **Comfort** covers a set of opportunities and qualities including **walking, sitting** and **staying** in a place, as well as possibilities to **see, hear** and **talk** (noise level) and for **physical activities** and **play**. Finally **enjoyment** focuses on how people can enjoy the positive aspects of the climate, enjoy the **views** and **vistas**, the artistic quality of the design of the place and its finer details, and also the joy of the experience of the **natural environment** (trees, plants and water). They even assert that 'when the whole set of criteria has been fulfilled in the design of a space, it will be a place where people can use all the human senses and fully enjoy walking as well as staying. In that respect a "100% place" has been formed' (Gemzøe, 2006).

Matos (2008) asserts that **walking** is a method of engaging and experiencing places; habitual walking and wandering is not only a physical activity but it is a way of temporal engagement: taking part and contributing to the social dynamics of a place. Through the **act of walking** various visual and psychological connections are made and evoke public imagination. Walking is also a way of **discovering** and finding new corners of a place (Rendell, 2006).

2.6.2.6 Place meaning and symbolic approach

Another quality of places in the city is the **symbolic meaning** attached to them (Moughtin, 1992). The symbolic role of place is a key part of the relationship between people and environment (Carmona *et al.*, 2010). Places in the built environment are not only the focus of activity but can also represent and symbolise different meanings for different people (Rapoport, 1977, 1986). Meanings can emerge from socio-political, cultural, religious, historical, physical and aesthetical dimensions. Low (2000) states that the public realm retains cultural and political meanings which are symbolically encoded into their spatial relationships with the built environment. According to their experiences, memories and knowledge about these places, people create connections and therefore meaningful places (Low, 2000).

Socially, events, experiences, and interactions in every urban place are sources for the construction of meaning. Public places can evoke feelings of concern, affiliation and caring, and therefore become significant to people's lives, especially if these places resonate with **memories** and experiences of individuals, families, groups or cultures (Carr, 1992). Rapoport (1982) suggests that place experience produces meanings that build up over time, and that if these are **satisfactory** and positive they will lead to connections that go beyond the immediate experience of a setting (Rapoport, 1982).

Through meaning, places acquire their **distinctive identity** in which people and place interact to develop connections. Carmona *et al*. (2010) state that all manmade environments symbolise the power to make or change the environment. Public places are often the vehicle used by local authorities to symbolise their commitment to and effectiveness in urban change, improvement and regeneration (Madanipour *et al.*, 1998). Thus, meaning in public places is not merely subjective; it is also related to the material processes that create it (Gomes, 2002).

2.6.3 Concept of place in planning studies

According to the Royal Town Planning Institute (2013), planning is involved in two activities: firstly, the management of the users competing for a space, and secondly, the making of places that are valued and have identity. Planning, development and management of urban spaces has traditionally been at the heart of the planning discipline, however the emphasis on the making of places is seen as a consequence of the social and economic changes of contemporary urban life. As a result, traditional 'place' has been undermined by space and, in many ways, subordinated to space (and time). This view changed only cautiously in the twentieth century (Agnew, 2011). On this subject, 'place' and 'space' are often used interchangeably in planning literature, without considering the significant difference between the two concepts.

The rediscovery of concepts of place in planning in the late twentieth century was as a result of major changes in political economies of the world (Davoudi & Strange, 2009). Davoudi and Strange (2009), in defining place, equate the concept with 'territory', 'something that adds value to economic development' and consistently use 'space and place' together as if these two are one concept with similar theoretical connotations. On the contrary, Madanipour *et al*. (2001), in recognition of the need for new ways of 'place governance', advocate the need for new ways of thinking about 'space, place and territory' (p.3), suggesting that the three concepts are not similar; yet they fail to define them.

This reading of place is essentially the legacy of the modernist approach of the 1960s. In this perspective 'place and space' are often used interchangeably. This was supported by the notion of environmental determinism and that human social life could be shaped by the environment within which it occurs. Graham and Healey (1999) call this approach the object-oriented conception of place, and argue that this deterministic view effectively remains at the foundation of the current planning theory. In addition, much research on planning falls within a perspective which is aimed at producing an artificial fit between place and people's behaviour.

Moreover, such a simple and authoritative model escapes the more complex nature of relationships between people and place. Clearly, single physical approaches to urban planning fail to explain the complex and variable social, cultural and individual differences of people and their actions in the built environment. Although such models have been useful in understanding human–environment interaction in some situations, nevertheless they have been found to be inadequate and incomplete in terms of the complex nature of the variables involved in the process of placemaking.

One problem might be that the concept of place in recent planning studies is not confined exclusively within the boundaries of planning (Castello, 2006), and this is because the current planning system is concerned with diverse issues, including social, economic, political, cultural and environmental changes. These are arguably consequences of the direct social and spatial conditions over which planners claim to have control (Madanipour, 2010a).

Nevertheless, understanding place is part of the planning process; therefore, planners also think about the whole human response to place, including the culture, **memory, meaning** and **history of places** (Averly *et al.*, 2011). Recent research publications by the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) and the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) highlight the significance of place as necessary for design and the generation of high-quality environments in UK cities (DETR & CABE, 2000; CABE, 2009; CABE *et al.*, 2010).

In practice, many planning authorities now realise that, in order to implement a good environment, strategies and proposals should be place-specific and recognise the character and distinctiveness of place, enhancing **identity of place** and protecting the history of the place (Greater London Council & Department, 1986; Mattingly & UCL, 1998; North West Regional Assembly, 2000; Burnie, 2009; CABE, 2009; Hamdi, 2010). Nonetheless, there remain differences between uses of the term ‘place’ in planning with its use in other disciplines.

For example, when planners talk about understanding the ‘vulnerability of places’ in climate change (Davoudi *et al.*, 2009) or ‘planning for cultural diversity’ and ‘cultural change of place’ (Inglis, 2008) they refer to the term ‘place’ as a wider social-spatial geography of urban settlement. Place in planning discipline is largely undermined and subordinated by space and time.

In this context, a group of urban planners urged the need to understand place, and argue that in order to create successful urban environment, the relationship between user and

place is essential (Punter, 1991; Punter & Carmona, 1997; Montgomery, 1998). They assert that while integrated social/spatial and form/activity analysis reveal some aspects of place, it is more than merely organising a form, and in the attempt to make sense of place, it is important to examine the meaning that people attach to place and the factors that explain evaluation and attachment, use (or abuse) and behaviour, or perhaps ignorance of existing places (Punter, 1991, p.26). Punter's (1991) conceptual model for place (Figure 2.5) is an attempt to provide a detailed framework for the components of the built form (physical setting), activity and meaning of place.

Montgomery (1998) argues that Punter's model of places is focused on the planning participation in the design of urban spaces, and in comparison with planning, for example, a suburban estate or a new town, the task of making places in cities is a more complex and sophisticated undertaking.

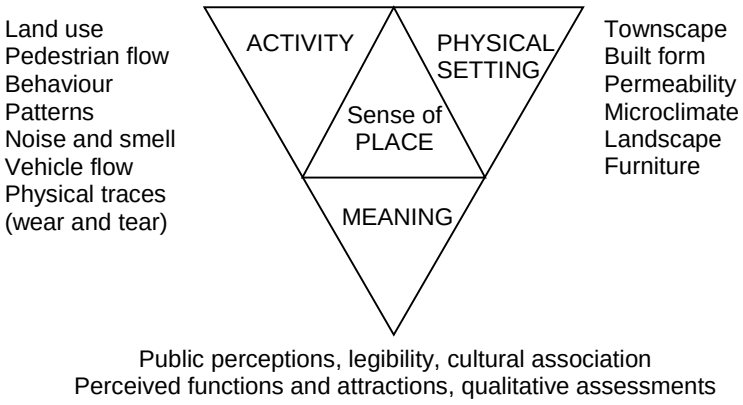


Figure 2.5: Components of place (Punter, 1991; Punter & Carmona, 1997)

Building on Punter's (1991) framework, Montgomery (1998) recommends that to recognise successful urban places, three principles of activity, form and image should be examined. He further proposes a composite model, as shown in Figure 2.6, to combine all the elements of good place. Arguably, both Montgomery and Punter's models for place (sense of place), despite the aim of recognising successful places (Montgomery, 1998, p.94), are more applicable to (for example) describing a mixed-use development or a neighbourhood, and cannot necessarily be used to analyse a place.

It can be argued that, to Montgomery and Punter, the key to a successful place is, in principle, transactions between people and place. Placemaking without people is impossible; they need to interact with place in some way. From a planner's point of view,

Montgomery (1995) believes this transaction ought to be a kind of economic activity, which is key to urban life; not culture, building structures, nor even public spaces.

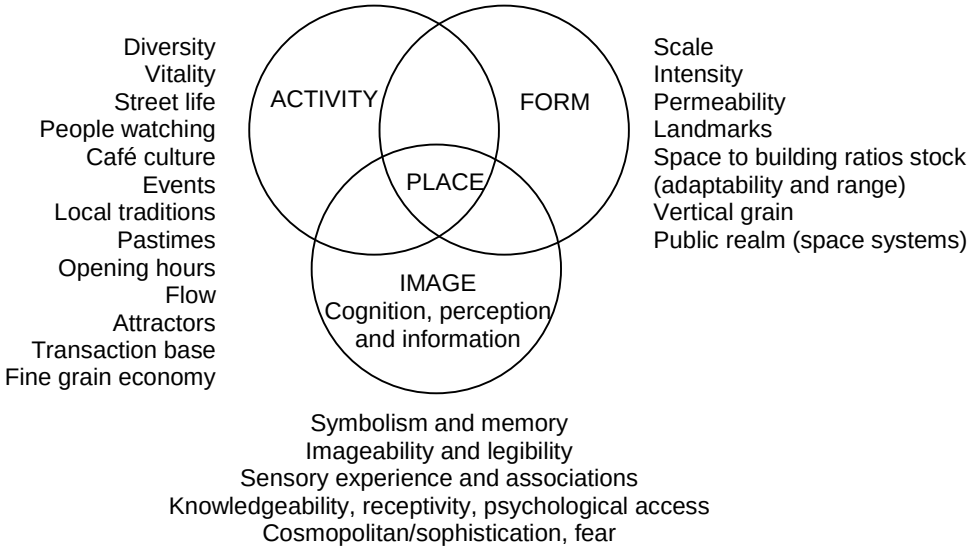


Figure 2.6: Policy direction to foster an urban sense of place or placemaking adapted from Montgomery (1998)

Participation and involvement in place – the way that people feel responsible for a place – is also critically important to planners. Appleyard (1979, p.152) emphasises this notion and argues that people's involvement in place in various forms is the way that they can become identified with a place. This sense of involvement, identity, recognition and even some sense of power is a basic human need. He further argues that this sense of self in a place could be more important than a sense of place.

2.6.4 Landscape architecture

Urban nature and landscape are inseparable parts of the urban fabric. These places become important for communities and individuals to visit for various social and cultural reasons: recreation, sanctuary, connection to the natural environment, social gatherings, and marking and attaching significance to a place, emotionally and functionally (Jones & Cloke, 2002; Clayton & Opotow, 2003; Spartz & Shaw, 2011). Many researchers agree universally that nature is highly important for people (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989, 2011; Kahn, 1999) and in urban settings, trees, foliage, water, wildlife and flowers in particular are much valued by residents (Kaplan, 1983).

People usually associate **green spaces** with high urban quality (CABE & Yeang, 2006). Landscape architecture at the philosophical and theoretical levels has much in common

with architecture and urban design and planning, and especially refer to the ideas of phenomenology (Merleau-Ponty & Smith, 1962; Norberg-Schulz, 1984) and the phenomenology of wholeness (Alexander, 1979) to investigate the experience of urban landscapes. Landscape architecture is primarily concerned with the relationship between people and their environment in the planning and design of outdoor spaces. In this context, it is crucial to understand what people do, where they do it, and how this relationship fulfils the people's **satisfaction of place**.

Access to nature is important and leads to an overall increase in satisfaction with place (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989). Kaplan's (1983) study shows that just knowing that a green space is available nearby often comforts people, even if they do not use it. He concludes that urban green spaces, whether built or natural, are important reasons for using a place, while people do not necessarily use the space for specific activities; however, they like places which can provide them **contact with nature**, breathing fresh air, and experiencing freedom. Findings also indicate that experiencing nature in the built urban environment provides better emotional benefit than a similar experience in an urban-only environment (Hartig *et al*., 1996).

Making outdoor places a fulfilling experience which could add to the quality of human life is central to landscape architecture, and there are contributions to theory from architecture, planning, and more recently, urban design, which lay the foundation for a socially responsive approach to place (Lynch, 1960; Bentley *et al.*, 1985; Tibbalds, 1992).

In recent years, landscape architecture has turned its attention from a purely aesthetic and visual value-centred approach to place to a more experiential environment with special attention to human psychology (Kaplan, 1995). According to Kaplan *et al.* (1998), fundamental to the human experience of place is the ability to **understand the surroundings, to explore them, to be able to enjoy them and to feel involved and participate**. This ability to understand and make sense of place is a well-established concept, as is the perception that particular places can be distinguished from others; and the presence of distinctive elements as orienting tools (Lynch, 1960; Lozano, 1974; Carr *et al.*, 1992). Apart from visual orientation in the physical character of place, an understanding of place is a complex and symbolic experience (Lang, 1988). Another approach to the study of place in landscape architecture is the 'Experiential Landscape Place (ELP)' (Thwaites & Simkins, 2007). This approach is an exploratory method of analysis, focusing on the experience of places in urban open spaces, and aims to

contribute to current practice in urban design and landscape architectural mainly by emphasising the quality of place.

Building on human geography, urban design and the phenomenological architecture conceptualisation of place, landscape architects Thwaites and Simkin (2001, 2005, 2007) develop a theoretical framework for the analysis of urban open spaces. They assert that key attributes of the human experience can potentially be understood through understanding of three main categories: how people attach significance to certain locations; how they orientate themselves and how they develop an awareness of place.

Table 2.2: A theoretical framework for Experiential Landscape Place developed by Thwaites and Simkin (2001, 2005, 2007)

Experiential dimension	Detailed attributes
Attachment of significance	**Social imageability**: functional use, physical features, social meanings **Restorative benefit**: being away, extent, fascination and compatibility **Social interaction and territoriality**: communication
Orientation	**Movement**: choice, imagination, attention **View**: landmarks, views and vistas, sequence **Change**: direction and level; entrances, exits and gateways and function
Awareness	**Public and private awareness** **Thematic continuity**: rhythm, pattern, coordination in texture, space, form, detail, symbol, building type, use, activity, degree of maintenance, topography

Although Thwaites and Simkin develop a new vocabulary to define the concept, nevertheless their framework comprised of the three components of attachment, orientation and awareness, is essentially a repetition of previous research and recommendations. They elaborate further on each category with more detailed attributes (Table 2.2) to examine the reasons for attachment, or how people achieve orientation through their experiences of movement, view and change, and finally awareness, by developing a sense of continuity and awareness of self and others or private and public space.

Thompson (2000) argues that every place can be described by three types of qualities: ‘sensual qualities’, like **natural elements of place**, freshness of water or the smell of the grass; ‘formal or physical qualities’; like the architectural merit and the harmony of the colours; and thirdly, ‘symbolic elements’, such as the meaning of the shapes, colours and arrangements. He then emphasises a dependence upon people’s cultural and symbolic understanding: one place may have different meanings to different groups.

Thompson differentiates between personal, cultural and biological reactions to symbolic values. He argues that there are three types of value inherent in the works of landscape architecture: **environmental, social and aesthetic**. The goal of landscape architecture

is to create places that are appreciated on personal, cultural and biological levels and to maximise the environmental, social and aesthetic experience of place.

2.6.5 Implications for the theoretical framework

This section reviewed different approaches to the study of 'place' in architectural studies, including urban design, planning and landscape architecture. Given the complexity of the phenomena of place, it is evident that the concept of place and its attributes cannot be encompassed by a single discipline or sub-discipline. It also appears that the importance of place has increasing significance within the body of architectural knowledge. It is argued that, while urban design and landscape architecture focus on the perception, conception and meaning of place, architecture and planning has concentrated more on the spatial geometric properties of place, and there is a clear shortcoming or neglect to introduce a clear definition of place by substituting it with and subordinating it to space. For architects, ‘designing spaces’ is a key process of constructing places, concentrating on the physical attributes of space, resulting in insufficient attention to the activities and social experiences those spaces are likely to engender for people. In contrast, ‘creating places’ is what, especially in recent years, urban designers, landscape architects and to a lesser extent planners aspire to achieve.

Nevertheless, a large number of attributes is assigned to the concepts of place, successful place and place quality by the discipline as a whole. Some authors proposed a group of key attributes of place (e.g. Montgomery, 1998; Punter, 1991), yet these have not been extensively tested in empirical research, and there is no evidence to show the relationship between attributes. A hierarchy could define relationships amongst a set of attributes that show the influence of an attribute or group of attributes in defining the concept of place.

Similar to philosophy, place is realised in the three social, spatial and symbolic contextual dimensions mentioned above, with interrelated areas of concern. While the concept of place in architecture can be seen to tend towards spatial-symbolic phenomena, in urban design and landscape architecture it is largely perceived by its social-symbolic meanings. As in planning, the dominance of spatial control over social and symbolic dimensions is evident. Yet again, the literature could not allocate any of the attributes identified to these dimensions discretely.

Figure 2.7 illustrates the key attributes of place identified in architectural studies (architecture, urban design, planning and landscape architecture).

Social Spatial Symbolic	Main Proponents
Accessibility	Appleyard , Francis, Lynch
Adaptability	Lynch, Meiss, Nicholson, Rapoport, Seamon
Control	Carr *et al.,* Francis , Lynch, Nasar
Design quality	Gehl & Gemzoe, Moughtin, Norberg-Schulz, Tibbalds
Discovery	Cullen, Mouhtin, Reynold
Feeling safe	Audit Commission, Carmona *et al*, Gehl, Tiesdels & Oc,
Freedom of action	Carr *et al*., Francis, Lynch
Function	Audit Commission, Bentley *et al*., Jacobs and Appleyard, Thwaites and Simkin
Historical significance	Carmona, Carr *et al*, Dewey, Nasar, Whitfield
Identity of place	Carr *et al*, Butina Watson, Hague, Twigger-Ross,
Image & appearance	Cullen, Lynch, Montgomery, Meiss, Moughtin, Sitte, Tibbalds
Legibility	Carmona *et al*., Bentley, DETR, Lynch, Punter
Meaning	Gustafson, Raymond, Relph, Tuan,
Meeting place	Gehl, Lang, Osmond
Nature	Clayton, Jones, Kaplan & Kaplan, Kaplan
Past experience	Averly, Pallasma
Personalisation	Carr *et al.,* Tavalayi, Westin
Physical activities	Canter, Ewing, Gehl, Handy, Montgomery, Nasar
Physical comfort	Carr *et al.*, Gehl, Whyte
Physical distance	Carmona, Carr *et al.*, Madanipour, Montgomery
Physical protection	Gehl, Gehl *et al*., Carr *et al.*
Psychological comfort	Gehl, Tibbalds
Satisfaction	Lowenthal and Riel, Rapoport,
Social accessibility	Carr *et al*., Whyte,
Views & vista	Gehl, Lynch, PPS, Thwaites & Simkin,
Vitality	Tiesdel & Oc, Townshend, URBED
Walkability	Gehl, Gemzoe, URBED, PPS,
Watching	Gehl *et al*., Hass-Klau *et al.*, Jacobs, Walzer
Wider context	Hass-Klau *et al.*, Townshend *et al.*

Main attributes of place in the built environment
(architecture, urban design, planning, landscape architecture)

Figure 2.7: Main attributes of place in the built environment

2.7 Environmental psychology and behaviour approach

The concept of place as a 'molecule' for the environment (Canter, 1977; Tuan, 1977; Stokols, 1981) is a very rich concept in psychological studies. Two different terms, 'environmental psychology' and 'environmental behaviour', are used for these sub-disciplines of psychology, which are primarily concerned with human–environment relationships. Proshansky (1976, p. 303) defines the discipline as: 'the attempt to establish empirical and theoretical relationships between the behaviour and experience of the person and his built environment'. Canter & Craik (1981, p.2) define the environmental psychology as: 'the area of psychology which brings into conjunction and analyses the transaction and interrelationship of human experience and action with a pertinent aspect of the socio-physical surrounding'.

The range of research in environmental psychology extents from deterministic approach (Porteous, 1977) to transactional theories (Stokols, 1995). The deterministic view suggests that the built environment has major implications for people. Designers have control and people are seen as helpless entities subject to the conditions imposed by design (Hamdi, 2010). Determinism, as defined by Porteous (1977, p.135), is a concept which asserts the environment as a dictator, directing people's actions in one direction rather than another. According to this view, physical characteristics of the environment determine human behaviour. Architectural or environmental determinism can be described in simple terms: the good physical environment will necessarily produce good places and result in a good social effect (Broady, 1998).

The transactional view offers a more sophisticated model and explains the complex interdependence between people and their environment. It takes into account the variables of both the environment and the people, and emphasises the 'reciprocal or bidirectional nature of people–environment relations' (Stokols, 1995). In this view there is no single linear relationship between the environment and the people. It suggests that the key to understanding this relationship is to investigate the way in which people conceptualise their surrounding built environment (Lynch, 1960; Canter, 1977; Altman, 1986; Stokols, 1995).

The importance of the concept of place in psychological studies was highlighted by Canter's (1977) works on the psychology of place. By employing a number of psychological concepts with the common interface on place, Canter (1977) suggests that the goal of environmental design is the creation of place, and the main concern should be the identification and clarification of the conceptions of place (p.157). He proposes a broad model of place which is very similar to Relph's (1976) definition of place: physical

features or appearance, observable social activities and functions and meaning or symbols (Figure 2.8). By employing this conceptual model of place, Canter (1977) points out that it is essential to examine patterns of place perceptions and user experiences.

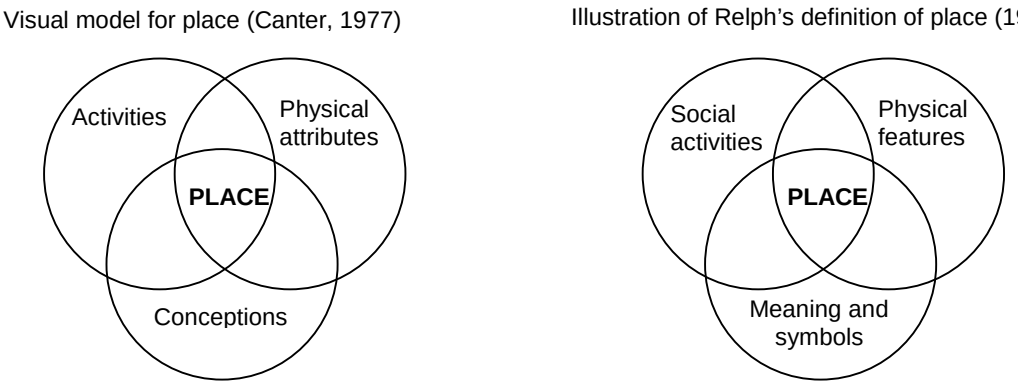


Figure 2.8: Canter and Relph models of place

He argues that these **past experiences** determine the way in which people use places and evaluate them; therefore, it is the uniqueness of the place and user experience itself which should govern the process of placemaking through design (Canter & Lee, 1974).

Although Canter identifies the importance of psychological and physical factors in understanding human–environment relationships, his studies lack detailed descriptions of the activities and physical settings (Sime, 1986). While Canter (1977) uses the term 'sense of place', this concept is not applied in his examination. It is arguable that place may not necessarily be understood only by studying activities, physical environments and conceptions; for example, the emotional bond between people and place appears to be absent in his psychological study of place.

In psychology literature, the term 'setting' typically refers to a common set of interrelated social and physical elements that individuals share through patterns of activity and experience (Barker, 1968). This is analogous to the definition of space in architecture and planning. By employing a psychological understanding of setting, Stokols and Shumaker's (1980) definition of place is a combination of social, geographical and architectural contexts of behaviour and of behaviour-shaping forces, the material and symbolic product of human action. Therefore, place can be characterised by its spatial attributes, individual perceptions of those attributes and collective symbolic interpretation of the place's meaning. This interpretation of place, along with Canter's model for place (as well as Relph's definition), is a validation for the social-spatial-symbolic conceptual basis for this research, as developed earlier. Here, activities concerning the area of social

dimension, physical attributes and conception relate to spatial and symbolic dimensions respectively.

To define the concept of place, Proshansky (1976) explains that place is as much social as physical; it is the expression of a social system which has a general influence on human activities and their relationships with others. Therefore, it can be concluded that physical environments symbolises and makes conditions for social environments.

Symbolic aspects of place in the study of the environment has been often neglected or taken for granted, and therefore left aside as an unimportant concept (Appleyard, 1979). There is a general consensus across social and urban psychologists that socio-spatial patterns have generally failed to provide an explanation of the necessary linkage of objective and subjective parts of social space (Wilson, 1980; Blumer, 1986). As discussed earlier, any attempt to discuss this linkage will need further investigation into human and environment interactions.

Therefore, for environmental psychology, understanding of place is not only based on physical and social properties; symbolic aspects also have influence on this realisation. Symbolic attributes of place focus on the associated meaning and value of the environment. Some of the place-based concepts, such as identity, attachment, emotional and functional dependence, personalisation, appropriation and memory are seen as socio-symbolic qualities of the physical environment. Lang (1974, 1988), referring to the meaning of the symbolic value of place, explains that it is associated with the meanings of the environment that give people pleasure and evoke their emotions. For Lang (1974, 1988) the separation of the structure of urban forms as a physical entity from the content of urban forms, which is symbolic, helps to analyse and understand urban phenomena such as place. Another symbolic aspect of place is the notion of emotion and pleasure. In this respect, the works of Mead on social psychology (Mead & Morris, 1967; Mead & Reck, 1981; Mead & Deegan, 1999) have extensively emphasised the importance of the symbolic meaning of the environment.

2.7.1.1 Environmental behaviour and cultural approach

Moving towards the aim of the humanistic approach to the urban form, as a shift from a stereotypical model of the built form as visually aesthetic to its relationship with cultural variables, Rapoport (1962, 1977) puts forward the view of cultural importance in studying urban form. This broadens the scope of studies of place from the dominance of physical entities to a subject that includes social science. From this perspective, Gottmann (1978), in the context of analysing a built environment, illustrates social aspects as the software

of places, and the spatial aspects of urban form as the hardware. This idea develops into a new method of inquiry into the study of environment, environmental behaviour studies, within which implications are made from spatial form to activities, because the physical form and the desired activities have a direct relationship (Rapoport, 1990, 1991, 2000).

This is based on the assumption that the environments are created to support specific activities. Activities, Rapoport (1990) argues, are the manifestation of lifestyle and, ultimately, culture and symbolic meanings. Therefore, Rapoport (1990, p.21) argues that the main purpose of places in the public arena of cities is to be harmonious with the users' social life, and support their activities, including their hidden symbolic aspects.

The important point of this approach is in relation to the interpretations from the characteristics of the place, such as access, openness and boundaries, to special concepts or activities; for instance, privacy or safety and social cohesion. Furthermore, it is worth stating that place (in the view of this approach) is an expression of a specific language of the built form, which is associated with the social and cultural background of a particular setting and community. This is in relation to the notion that the creation of place is due to manifest cultural patterns, and that the analysis of place must include the differences between the social backgrounds of communities.

From the perspective of environmental behaviour research, the relation between people and place is the result of complex interactions amongst cultural, environmental and perceptual variables (Rapoport, 1991). Culture plays a significant role in the way environments are defined, transformed and owned. It is argued that culture is a 'way of doing things' (Rapoport, 1991; Moore, 2000). For Rapoport (1991) the activities that occur in any setting are a function of culture, primarily of a set of rules that are part of the culture in question. It is possible to classify the definitions of culture into three classes: i) culture can be defined as a way of life typical of a group, a particular way of doing things; ii) a system of symbols, meanings, and cognitive schemata; and iii) a set of adaptive strategies of survival related to the ecological setting and its resources (Rapoport, 1991; Elsheshtawy, 2000).

In some respects, the view of the cultural process approach can be criticised, as it allocates special priority to the role of cultural parameters as the main analytical variables of the place and undermines the other factors, especially the role of physical forces, the functions of the place and general opportunities and behaviour, which at the generic level are common across all cultures; for example, seeing, sitting, eating or drinking in the public place. In this respect the action and function of eating or drinking is more important

than what is eaten or drunk, as different cultures may have very different tastes in food and beverages.

2.7.2 Place-related concepts in psychology of place

To research place means to research those essential properties which convert space to a distinctive place. Places become distinctive and recognisable in many ways. In the outer layer, as discussed, places have spatial and social characteristics. However, people–place relationships are more complex than this. A large number of empirical and theoretical researchers within environmental psychology and behaviour agree that these properties generally manifest in a set of related concepts, namely: sense of place, place attachment, place identity, place dependence, place memory, appropriation and personalisation (Craik, 1973; Stokols & Shumaker, 1980; Proshansky *et al.*, 1983; Canter, 1988; Lalli, 1988; Shamai, 1991; Altman & Low, 1992; Hummon, 1992; Marcus, 1992; Jackson, 1994; Hayden, 1995; Gustafson, 2001; Jiven & Larkham, 2003; Stedman, 2003b; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Shamsuddin & Ujang, 2008).

In what follows, firstly the notion of 'sense of place' is described, then a brief description of each concept is presented. It is noteworthy that due to the holistic nature of the concept of place and the interweaving of its properties across various disciplines, place-related concepts usually overlap and complement one another; however, for practical reasons, they are treated separately in this research.

2.7.2.1 Sense of place

The terms 'spirit of place', '*genius loci*', 'sense of place' and the like have been used interchangeably in the literature to refer to, as Motloch (2001, p. 297) puts it, the 'mental construct that emerges from characteristics of a setting', their interrelationship, and the associations they evoke. Norberg-Schulz (1984) indicates that *genius loci* or the spirit of place is a Roman concept. According to ancient Roman belief, every independent being had its *genius*, its guardian spirit which gave life to people and places, accompanied them from birth to death, and determined their character or essence (Norberg-Schulz, 1984, p.18). As mentioned earlier, different authors have adopted different terms for the concept of 'sense of place'. For instance, Alexander's (1979) concept of the quality without a name, which endows places with a sense of wholeness, is similar to the spirit of place.

Sense of place as central to understanding of place has been subdivided, in different ways by different disciplines, into different interrelated concepts such as place attachment, place identity and place dependence. However it generally refers to the

kinds of bonds that people develop or experience in a particular place; it is what makes a place specific and imparts meaning into an environment (Thrift & Kitchin, 2009). Agarwal (2005) suggests that sense of place is key to place recognition.

Motloch (2001) expands on the concept of 'sense of place', with reference to the urban environment, and examines spatial relations of place including: **furniture, buildings, monuments** and **sculptures**; and the surrounding environment, which he calls 'background', comprises **natural landscape** and **urban structure**. Motloch claims that placemaking, from the public perception point of view, should increase the 'sense of place'. Simonds (1998) argues that lack of 'sense of place' causes uneasiness and discomfort. He relates that to the feelings that place evokes, such as **curiosity, freedom, awareness** and **relaxation.**

However, 'sense of place' is an ambiguous concept (Shamai & Ilatov, 2005) and it is more possible to define and analyse its results in human behaviour in place than to define the precise term (Lewis, 1979, cited in Shamai & Ilatov, 2005). Sense of place has been used to lay a greater emphasis on the way in which people experience, use and understand place, as described earlier, leading to a range of conceptual subsets such as place attachment, place identity and place dependence (Graham *et al.*, 2009).

2.7.2.2 Place attachment: place identity and place dependence

Place attachment refers to the strong emotional or functional bonding, forms between an individual and a place (or any physical site) (Altman & Low, 1992) through actions, and is usually described as a two-dimensional concept including **place identity and place dependence** (Milligan, 1998).

Place dependence refers to how well place can achieve goals, compared to an existing range of alternatives (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981); for example, how a place is compared to other places for what people like to do. Therefore, place dependence refers to functions and activities that a place supports (Brown & Raymond, 2007). **Place identity or identity by place**, in turn, is a complex interpretation, narrative and outcome of people's conscious and unconscious communications with their physical environment. Castells (1997, p.6) argues that 'by identity, as it refers to social actors, one can understand the process of construction of meaning on the basis of cultural attributes'. He defines identity as 'people's source of meaning and experience of place'.

Giuliani (1993, 2003) argues that 'bond' might relate to place, in terms of physical or social characteristics, or relates to people associated to the place. The issue of people's bond with place finds interests in a number of disciplines, including geographers,

psychologists and sociologists. Cooper Marcus (1992) illustrates the physical environment as a ‘psychic anchor’ and Altman and Law (1992) see place attachment as more than ‘emotional and cognitive experience’; they find a symbolic relationship formed by people giving culturally shared emotional and affective meaning to a particular space or piece of land.

Place attachment has also been suggested as contributing to the quality of urban life in several different ways. It has a role to play in the formation, maintenance and preservation of the identity of a person, group or culture and develops over time, memory and knowledge about place (Altman & Low, 1992; Jiven & Larkham, 2003; Brown & Raymond, 2007).

The term **place-identity** (with a hyphen) which was first used by Proshansky (1978), describes aspects of identity that are linked with place. This theory recognises the role of place as experienced by individuals in shaping their personal identities and as an integrated part of self (Proshansky *et al.*, 1983). They define place-identity as a substructure of self-identity, cognition about the physical world in which the individual lives: memory, ideas, feeling, attitude, values, preferences, meaning and behaviour and experience.

This definition of place-identity is useful in understanding the importance of the place experience of people and explaining many related issues; however, it needs more clarification, as it seems this broad definition includes every possible aspect of the people–place relationship, but as discussed earlier, some of the components of Proshansky’s definition for place-identity have been identified by place attachment and place dependence. It is important to distinguish between ‘place-identity’, and ‘identity of place’. It is probably less confusing to use ‘identity by place’ instead of ‘place-identity’. In this context ‘identity of place’ therefore refers to the place characteristics.

Lalli (1992) identifies a particular aspect of ‘identity by place’ which he calls ‘urban related identity’. In this process, places become general symbols of personal experiences, which provide continuity for the person. In addition, it provides a sense of fundamental uniqueness for individuals: **continuity with their personal past**, collecting the significant objectives of the place and reflecting the symbolic connection between personal biography and the place’s characteristics; the symbolisation of past personal experience (Lowenthal, 1975; Lowenthal & Ingold, 1994). Lalli believes that 'urban related identity’ also fulfils a function for the individual’s **social status and the way they express their social order**: a positive self-regard or self-esteem. This quality differentiates people from other individuals, and gives them a sense of 'me' and a

distinction from others. In similar fashion, Pakzad (2006) argues that for some people, to be at a respected public place, located in an affluent part of the city, is a way to demonstrate their social distinction.

As described above, the underlying people–place relationships derive from attachment and identity; this can be seen in both **emotional and functional dependencies** and that dependencies may not essentially become an affective attachment; they might be an attachment to the functions of place (Manzo, 2003, 2005; Manzo & Perkins, 2006; White *et al.*, 2008).

2.7.2.3 Appropriation and personalisation of place

Places are capable of contributing to the building of identities through a two-way interaction; this allows people to make themselves dependent on a specific place (Proshansky *et al.*, 1983), and people can equally modify places by means of personalisation and appropriation (Carmona *et al*., 2003). In this way, urban environments are defined by the way people engage socially, spatially and symbolically with place, by the means of appropriation and personalisation. It is important to explore these concepts which are mainly studied by environmental psychologists.

Since placemaking is also the result of human behaviour in spaces, people establish relations with places to promote transformation through different spatial practices. In short, human behaviour is what produces urban places. Therefore, individuals and groups could take control of place through **appropriation** and **personalisation**. These two concepts sometimes are used interchangeably, and that is because both concepts intersect and overlap. A sense of appropriation is a territorial concept: it must exist in order to personalise a place. Appropriation is the result of attachment to and a care for a place which implies familiarity with it, detailed knowledge and a sense of identity, interest and concern. The series of interactions of appropriation, modification and personalisation of the environment can, in turn, create a sense of identity as well.

Appropriation is the means by which people manifest themselves in the place; it is a complex mechanism of selecting a location as their own. Personalising place, however, is the way that people make a place habitable (Graumann, 1983). By giving specific meaning, appropriation serves both to signal that the place is controlled by the occupant and to depict privacy and self-identity (Altman & Chemers, 1986). Through appropriation people put a distinctive identity on place. Typically this occurs at, and makes explicit, the threshold or transition between public and private domains (Madanipour, 2003), where small-scale design details contribute to the symbolism or delimitation of the place.

Personalisation of place allows self-expression, expressing personal tastes and values, and usually has little outside impact, while appropriation of place and space is visible to the wider community (Carmona *et al.*, 2010). Personalisation of a place also provides people with signs that show their uniqueness and differences. Personalised place offers solitude and opportunities for reflection. Other researchers suggest that positive emotions could be the result of personalised favourite places (Korpela & Hartig, 1996; Korpela *et al.*, 2002).

2.7.3 Place memory

The aspect of time has not been explored in place-based concepts (Lewicka, 2008). Place implies a mixture of memories, sensory experiences and interpretations (Relph, 1992; Rose, 1995); here, in terms of placemaking, the primary reference to time can be seen as the relationship between the past, present and future of place experience; between memory, experience and expectation of place. Memory is closely related to place identity; in the same way, **past experience of place**, memory and tradition are important reference points in the construction of identity. Memory and past experience are extensively embedded in the physical environment as well as satisfactory social experiences (Hague & Jenkins, 2005).

Another aspect is the collective memory of place. Memories, as Cooper Marcus (1992) puts it, serve to anchor people in place. Lowenthal and Ingold (1994) suggest that all awareness of the past is founded on memory and remembering the past is crucial for people's sense of identity as continuity. In the context of historic urban environments, Tiesdell (1996) asserts that contemporary urban design is all about creating a sense of place and placemaking with continuity, which depends wholly on memory.

Furthermore, in the importance of memory in creating place, Rossi (1982) believes that the city itself is a collective memory of its people, and like memory is associated with objectives and place. Boyer (1996) emphasises the importance of memory and the role that place has to play to maintain it. She further criticises the Modernists who overlooked the significance of memory in architecture and planning and discontinued past building styles. The importance of place memory and continuity cannot be overemphasised, as the places which evoke collective and individual memories narrate events and experiences and shape the identity of people, and tell people who they are and how they have changed or might be changing (Hull *et al.*, 1994).

Different mechanisms are involved in the bonding with places through memory. Pellow (1992) shows that knowledge about place leads to identification with and attachment to

place, whether subject to the emotional or the functional. Proshansky (1983) explains that the length of residence and the role of parents in bringing up their children, or **childhood memory**, are some of the influential factors in the bonding mechanism.

Studies of **childhood memories** of favourite places and children's place use (Lukashok & Lynch, 1956; Lynch, 1956; Marcus, 1978; Cooper Marcus, 1992), have shown that strong correlation between adulthood and memory attached to places. Cooper Marcus (1992) studies groups of architecture and landscape architecture students, and suggests that 'childhood places are powerful images, resonating into adulthood via memories, dreams, even the creative work of some adult designers' (p.89). She argues that childhood memories have a lasting impact on people's emotions towards places.

2.8 Implications for theoretical framework

Figure 2.9 shows the combination of the identified attributes of place from the perspective of environmental psychology and environmental behaviour. What has been discussed about the concept of place in environmental psychology shows a clear theoretical picture from place. For 'environmental psychology' and 'environmental behaviour', as Proshansky (1980, p.150) states, 'there is no physical setting that is not also social, cultural, and psychological'. In summary, this section establishes the extent of this statement. In line with this perspective, for the study of place, one should think beyond a setting's spatial characteristics, and identify that place comprises complex attributes, related to the social and psychological symbolic (cultural) domain, that influence human behaviour.

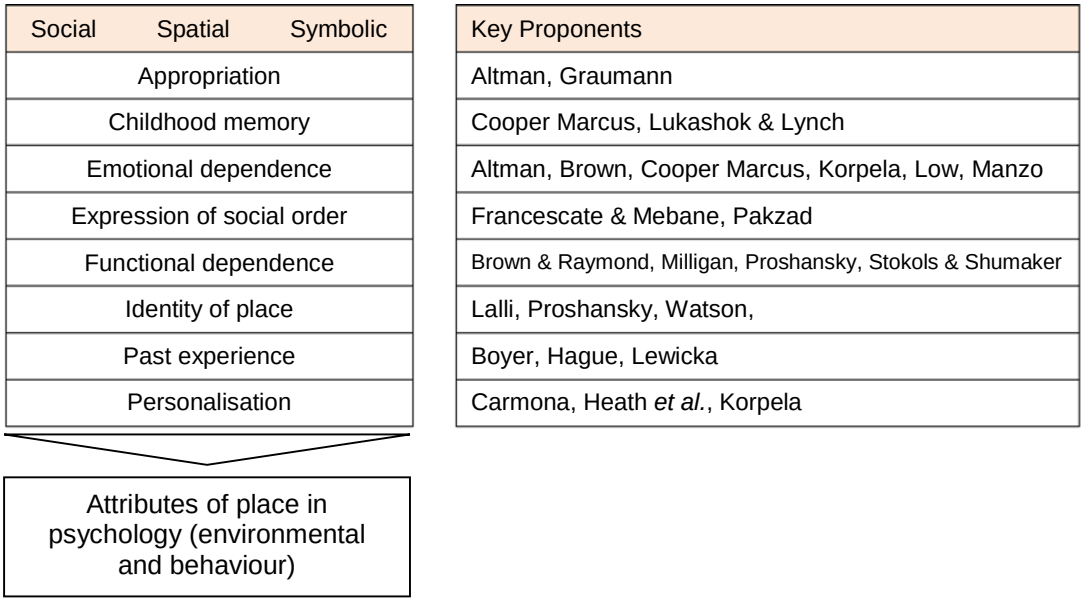


Figure 2.9: Attributes of place in psychological study of place: environmental and behaviour

Drawing on extant research streams, including place identity, place dependence and attachment, sense of place, and place memory, amongst other theoretical justifications, a number of key attributes of place are identified. Other key psychological attributes of place in the public arena, namely the importance of the place for the expression of identity, social status, and control of place by personalisation and appropriation, also emerge from the disciplines of environmental psychology.

2.9 Summary and conclusion

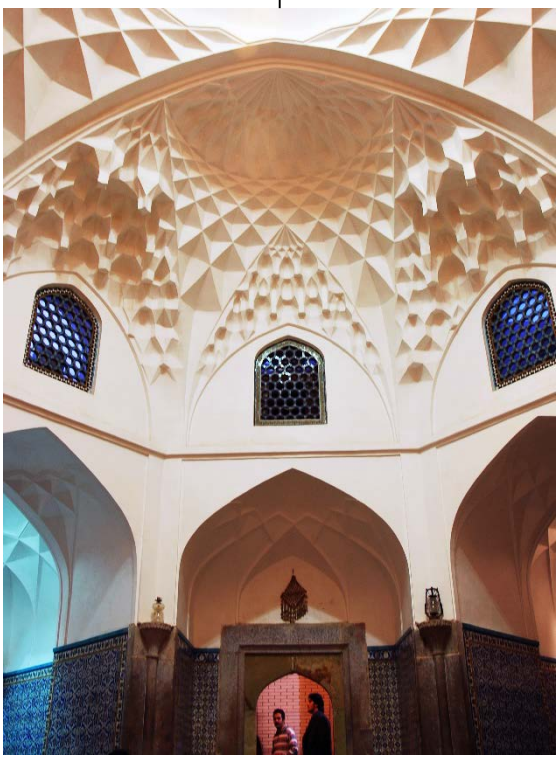
The issue of place in the public arena of cities and the conceptual fit has been raised in many disciplines and from different angles. In order to provide a comprehensive view of the concept of place, this chapter provided an extensive review of relevant literature to identify the conceptual and theoretical direction of the research from a multidisciplinary perspective. The four major disciplines of philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology were reviewed and the main attributes of place were identified. A summary of the reviewed disciplines, their theoretical approach, including theoretical key points, weaknesses and strengths is illustrated in Table 2.3. The chapter attempted to answer the first and second research objectives, in order to explore the current theoretical approaches to the study of place and to identify the main attributes of place in the public arena of cities for further investigation.

In summary, while each discipline approaches ‘place’ related to its goals and objectives, the literature suggests that the concept is complex, multilayered and multidimensional, with at least three main conceptual dimensions: social, spatial and symbolic. Some commonalities across disciplines, as reflected in their diverse interests, were discussed.

Table 2.3: Summary of the main disciplines and their approach, weaknesses and strengths to the study of place

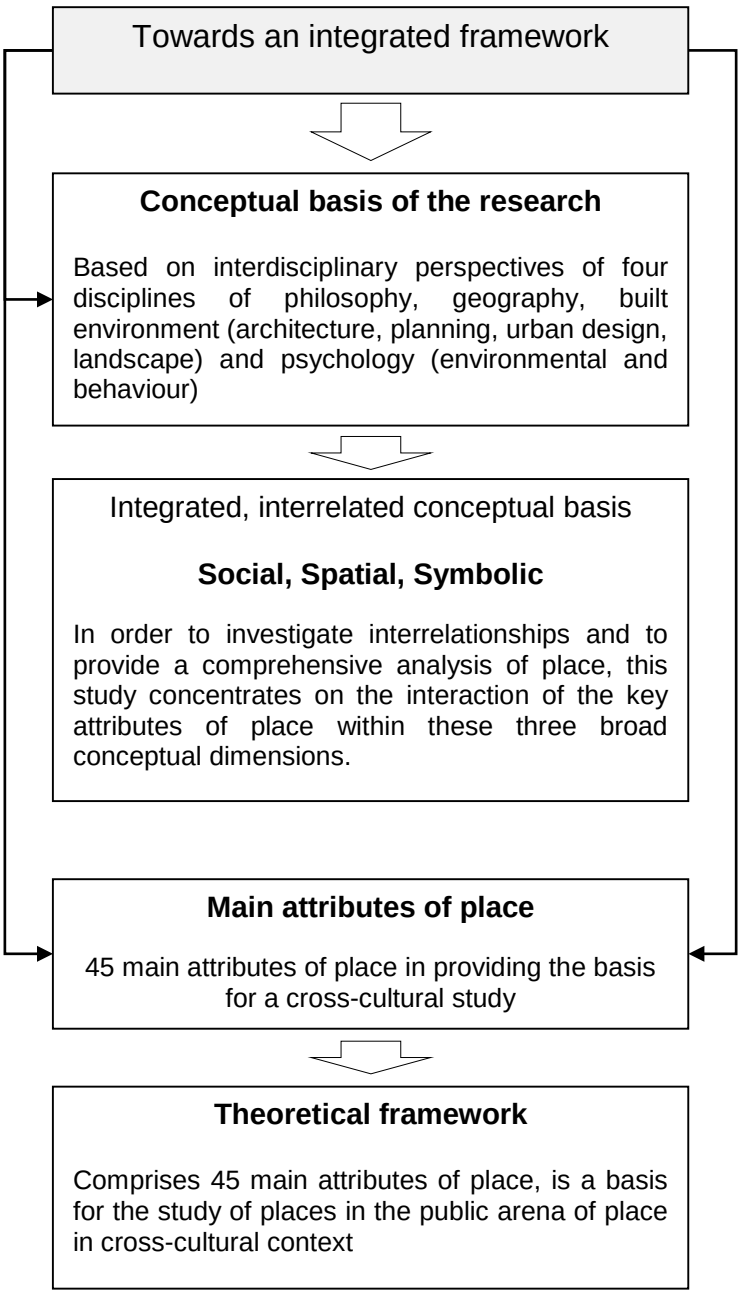
	Disciplines: approaches	Dimensional orientations	Key points
	Philosophy	Spatial-Symbolic	Relational approach with focus on physical world. Mostly emphasises the role of place in people's orientation and their existential situation. **Weakness**: Undermining the role of human beings whose behaviour does not necessarily follow the physical laws of nature **Strength**: Can be a useful approach in analysing the existential relationship of man and spatial environment.
	Geography (human geography)	Social-Symbolic	Views place as an evolving phenomenon rather than as a sudden and finite thing; emphasis on the experience of place, value and meaning. **Weakness**: On theoretical level, focuses on specific location and human experience of that portion of space. Human aspect is limited to what a place means to individuals. **Strength**: As it mostly emphasises people's experience, it can be a useful approach to analyse place as a way of seeing, knowing and understanding from users' point of view.
Built Environment	**Architecture and planning**	Social-Spatial	Relational approach integrating the two realms of the physical and the social worlds. **Weakness**: As an analytical approach, more concerned with spatial dimensions of the built environment. More adapted to studies concerning contemporary development of urban spaces **Strength**: Can be recognised as an integrated approach with a balance between the two realms of the social and the physical environments.
	Urban Design and landscape architecture	Social-Spatial-Symbolic	Detailed design elements, perception and image of place, subjective approach, aesthetic qualities of urban places through art of relationships, appreciates a place through a series of unfolding pictures **Weakness**: Generally reduces place into Identifiable features without viewing the meaning behind their creation. Emphasis is more on one aspect of the built form (e.g. aesthetic, design) and ignores other dimensions **Strength**: Builds a structure of inquiry to analyse the place's constituent parts. From the point of its nature, it is a useful approach to formal analysis alongside the analytical technique to draw the place's composition and its spatial values.
	Psychology (environ-mental and behaviour)	Social-Spatial-Symbolic	Focuses on human aspects of place, emphasises cultural importance and the relationships between place and people's behaviour. **Weakness**: Prioritises symbolic/cultural parameters as the main determinants of the attributes of place. **Strength**: Attention to human aspects of place (identity, memory, attachment) and how spatial form influences social behaviour. Intention and level of satisfaction of users can be evaluated.

The next chapter is dedicated to the development of the conceptual basis and a theoretical framework of the research.



Towards an Integrated Framework for the Research

Chapter 3: Towards an Integrated Framework for the Research



3.1 Introduction

The last chapter provided the research with a multidisciplinary overview of place in the public arena. The review of the literature contributed to a better understanding of the main theoretical and conceptual approaches from a multidisciplinary perspective. However, it was observed that there are a number of approaches to the conceptualisation of place, which are in opposition in some cases, such as aesthetics in architecture and the social place in geography or the psychological construct in environmental psychology. In this context, some researchers advocate an integrated approach (Madanipour, 2000; Miles, 2000). They argue that thinking in opposition and isolation is not helpful and instead suggest an integrated approach with dynamic relationships.

This chapter, therefore, is devoted to the development of an integrated conceptual basis to understand the nature and scope of the study of place that can be used as a basis for the development of a theoretical framework for the analysis of place in the public arena of cities. The framework is an interdisciplinary approach, combining all identified attributes of place from the theoretical perspectives reviewed in the last chapter.

3.2 Conceptual basis of the research

To explain all aspects of place, an integrated approach is necessary. As discussed in Chapter Two, each conceptual basis of 'place' attempts to investigate one or more aspects of place; therefore, an integrated conceptual basis is claimed to be necessary to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the analyses of place. As already mentioned, different fields of theories try to explain place, but do not offer a full explanation of what place is. Madanipour (2000) asserts that there is a diversity of perspectives of place in the different disciplines, but generally public spaces are seen as places that collect human beings together with the natural environment and physical objects, and that public places cannot be studied in an isolated manner. He also affirms that social and spatial dimensions of urban form have a dynamic relationship and suggests a socio-spatial approach (1996, p.31).

Moving towards an integration of views of urban places, many scholars (Appleyard, 1979; Canter, 1985; Harvey, 1996; Madanipour, 1996, 2003; Kohn, 2004; Schmidt & Nemeth, 2010) argue in different ways that the analysis of place and public space will only make sense when an integrated perspective replaces these fragmented views. In addition to the social and spatial dimensions, a third perspective is that the only way to understand place is to investigate the way people conceive and experience places

(Relph, 1976; Tuan, 1977; Relph, 1985; Canter, 1988). This perspective embraces the human behaviour of everyday life within its symbolic dimension. On this matter, it is suggested that an integration of the different perspectives is required for a holistic and thorough understanding of the place in urban settings.

The research is therefore founded on four interrelated conceptual notions: that place has both social and spatial dimensions; that place as a social process needs to be understood by addressing the symbolic structures which frame the different interpretation and meaning of place; that the understanding of 'place' in the public arena of cities will not be comprehensive without addressing all three contexts – social, spatial and symbolic; and finally, that the study of place is best made possible by studying the main attributes of place from a multidisciplinary perspective.

Therefore, in order to understand the interrelationships that affect the study of place and to develop a comprehensive conceptual basis for the analysis of place, this study concentrates on the interaction of the key attributes of place within these three broad dimensions. Figure 3.1**Error! Reference source not found.** illustrates the conceptual basis for the research.

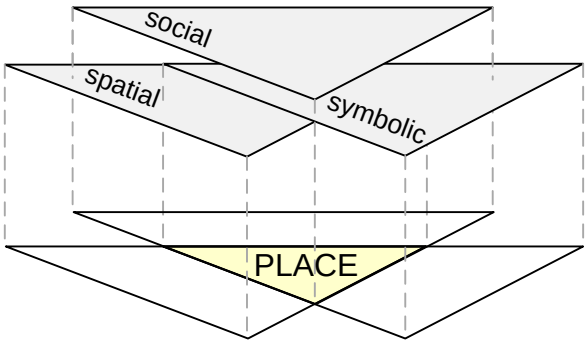


Figure 3.1: Conceptual context for the study of place which illustrates the three main dimensions of place

The social dimension of place deals with the social relationship and interrelationship of the characteristics of people who create and use place, while the spatial fabric of place is conditioned by different social procedures and various symbolic interpretations. At all levels, the social, spatial and symbolic dimensions of place are interwoven, yet the reviewed literature is incapable of providing a clear definition of these dimensions and also fails to allocate specified attributes to any of the dimensions. In this respect, the

social, spatial and symbolic dimensions of place are fundamentally interrelated with no clear boundary. This can be recognised as an approach which aims to consider a balance between all the major lines of approach: those which focus on the spatial environment (both natural and manmade), those which focus on the social environment and those with symbolic meaning. A social-spatial-symbolic viewpoint, comprising these three dimensions and their complexities, will allow researchers to see how the spatial structure explains the social formations within a symbolic context.

3.3 A theoretical framework for the analysis of place

Identification of the main attributes of place was the main concern of the previous chapter. In order to investigate places in the public arena and to identify a successful place, from the previous discussion, it appears that neither of the approaches could develop a comprehensive framework. Therefore, in order to produce a cross-disciplinary framework, it is essential to look at the synergy of the key attributes of place. It also appears from this that place can be characterised by many different attributes.

On the other hand, most research about place has emphasised specific locations and/or individuals' perception of the environment (Stokols & Shumaker, 1980; Moore, 2000). The present research is then set to analyse the phenomenon of place, based on the common or widely recognised meanings that become associated with places in different settings.

The central point of what has been discussed is that places in cities can be investigated by their accumulation of attributes; the theoretical framework, therefore, should provide support for all types of spatial, social and symbolic repository. The framework also considers the fundamental content of place that addresses place quality, that the place is produced through the action of stimuli provoked by spatial structure, and located within the public arena, including the functional, perceptual and behavioural factors. Those stimuli encourage people's relationship with certain places' use, associated with social-spatial-symbolic structural, perceptual and experiential characteristics.

As indicated above, a review of current relevant literature discovered that no generally accepted theoretical framework in relation to generic qualities of place in the public arena of cities has yet been developed, nor has any cross-disciplinary and comprehensive method of analysis been devised to evaluate the dimensions of place with some degree of precision. Furthermore, this framework is the response to an urgent need for a reliable tool, which could assist researchers and designers to evaluate public places.

This research believes that any categorisation of the attributes at this stage – before the empirical testing – will be arbitrary, therefore drawing on aspects of grounded theory; any possible categorisation of the attributes will be applied when there is more evidence to support such an action. Figure 3.2 is an illustration of the identified main attributes of place in alphabetical order, and a short description of each attribute can be found in Table 3.1.

Social Spatial Symbolic
1. Accessibility
2. Adaptability
3. Appropriation
4. Childhood memory
5. Cleanliness
6. Continuity (personal history)
7. Control
8. Design quality
9. Discovery
10. Emotional dependence
11. Everyday routine
12. Familiarity
13. Feeling safe
14. Freedom of action
15. Functional dependent
16. Historical significance
17. Identity by place
18. Identity of place
19. Image and appearance
20. Legibility
21. Meaning
22. Meeting place

23. Nature
24. Novelty
25. Participation
26. Past experiences
27. Personalisation
28. Physical activity
29. Physical comfort
30. Physical distance (close)
31. Physical distance (far)
32. Physical protection
33. Position in social order
34. Presence of others
35. Presence of self
36. Psychosocial comfort
37. Relaxation
38. Restorative effect
39. Satisfaction
40. Social accessibility
41. Views and vistas
42. Vitality
43. Walkability
44. Watching (to see)
45. Wider context

PLACE IN THE PUBLIC ARENA OF CITIES

Figure 3.2: Theoretical framework for the analysis of place in the public arena. The framework illustrates a combination of main attributes of place identified through a literature review of four key disciplines of philosophy, built environment, geography and psychology of place.

Table 3.1: Main attributes of place identified through the literature review with brief descriptions

Main Attributes	Descriptions
Accessibility	Physical and visual access to place as the first criterion of having a well-used place
Adaptability	The ability of a place to be changed according to the users' needs
Appropriation	Sense of appropriation is a territorial concept by which people manifest themselves in the place, which is a signal that the place is controlled by them
Childhood memory	Childhood memories of places are powerful images, resonating into adulthood via memories, dreams; childhood memories have lasting impact on people's emotions towards places
Cleanliness	Generally people evaluate their places by the quality of maintenance and cleanliness
Continuity (personal history)	People have strong relationships with places that provide a sense of continuity of the self, such as those who have lived at the same place for a long time, or have lived at the same type of place. Continuity with personal past collects the significant objectives of the place and reflect the symbolic connection between personal biography and the place characteristics, the symbolisation of past personal experience
Control	The degree of freedom, autonomy and motivation in decision-making and choices in place
Design quality	Physical, aesthetic elements of place manifested in form, order and architecture
Discovery	Discovery and surprise in the context of urban places is the opportunity to observe diversity of objects and events in place
Emotional dependence	Emotional bond of people and place, the degree of emotional environment in a place
Everyday routine	Favourite places become part of regular routine and choice of habitual route
Familiarity	Knowledge and familiarity of place is a perceptual quality and refers to the memory of the people
Feeling safe	Feeling safe, gained through a complex physical and psychological experience, is an important attribute of place
Freedom of action	Freedom of action and choice has close ties with the physical as well as psychological comfort of people
Functional dependence	The range of functions and uses available and how easily people can find the opportunities offered
Historical significance	Authentic physical distinctiveness and originality of place refers to those qualities of place that give it a sense of importance and identity
Identity by place	Complex interpretation and communication with physical environment where people identify themselves by a place
Identity of place	Identifiable physical or symbolic characteristics of place, as landmarks or physical/visual objects; readily identifiable place
Image and appearance	Visual stimuli and visual delight, the visual quality of the image of place as a whole, as part of the physical structure of place. The point of encounter which attracts people in the first instance, before experiencing place. 'Image' suggests qualities, distinctions and relations
Legibility	Contributes to a better reading and understanding of physical layout of place, also influenced by knowledge about it; has aspects of physical, social and symbolic knowledge
Meaning	Describes the specificity for individuals and groups; by attaching significance to places people transform them into meaningful places. Symbolic meaning can be projected upon places through their representation in a variety of media like image and form
Meeting place	Opportunity for meeting with friends and interacting with strangers
Nature	The effect of contact with nature on the selection of place and restorative effect of nature
Novelty	Describes the elements of complexity and mystery in place; novelty is associated to mainly physical properties of place, when people encounter something new
Participation and involvement	Tendency towards participation and involvement in place (design, development and management) encourages a sense of care, ownership and responsibility

Main Attributes	Descriptions
Past experience	External evaluation and comparison between places from past and perceived uniqueness and special character. Upon a satisfactory experience of a place, people expect to repeat the success
Personalisation	An expression of self, the capacity of space to provide privacy, to become a solitude place or personalised, both spatially and socially
Physical activity	Opportunity of play, exercise and other physical activates and the extent of service and activities that places allow
Physical comfort	Opportunity and spatiality, the extent of service and activities that places allow
Physical distance (close)	Represents degrees of accessibility; also suggests the importance of the place to the respondents and how much they are ready to travel to be in their desired place
Physical distance (far)	Location of public places also influence on the frequency of use and type of usage (for physical activity or for recreation)
Physical protection	Focuses on a wide range of protective measures that place provides to minimise unpleasant experiences: shelter and protection from traffic and the impact of climate conditions in people's choice and use of place
Position in social order	As a source of evaluation to distinguish themselves from others. To be in a distinguished public place can express a positive expression of social status
Presence of others	Public places can also be the places to show the distinctiveness and to distinguish themselves from others; therefore they might rather to be seen by other to express their differences from others by attachment to the place
Presence of self	Seeing others in public arena reveals sense of self and privacy
Psychological comfort	Relates to psychological comfort and convenience. The restriction of psychological comforts in place causes the restriction of some user groups, especially women, the elderly and the disabled
Relaxation	A combination of physical and psychological qualities and a sense of place which provide a relaxed environment
Restorative effect	Restorative and healing quality of place
Satisfaction	Happiness and joy in place refers to the experience of happy moments and the general satisfaction with it. Satisfaction with the overall conditions of place
Social accessibility	The availability of access by all people from any social class or group
Views and vistas	View from within a place, features in environment that suggest opportunities for watching, hiding and delight
Vitality	Tendency towards crowding and social anonymity
Walking	One of the main supportive characteristics of public places. Through movement, humans make sense of their geographical surroundings; the majority of activities in public places require walking
Watching	Places in the public arena as the centre for sociability. The pleasure of watching and being part of a crowd and engaging with society as an essential quality of place
Wider context	The relationship of place with its wider context, links with the surrounding network, activities

3.4 Summary and conclusion

Exploration of the current theoretical approaches to the study of place and identification of the main attributes of place in the public arena of cities were the chief aim of Chapters Two and Three. As a result, 45 main attributes of place have been identified, as illustrated in Figure 3.2. This framework will inform the research methodology to investigate appropriate methodological orientations and to employ suitable methods of enquiry for its generic applicability.

This chapter discusses the nature of 'place' from the perspectives of four main bodies of knowledge – philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology – and briefly

explores the meanings and some associated dilemmas inherited in the concept of place. As the literature review revealed, the conceptualisations of place are largely subjected to the influence of competing opinions of different disciplines. This is because of the multidimensional nature and the diversity of disciplines and professions involved in the study and practice of place and placemaking. At the theoretical level, each discipline defines place and its attributes in accordance with a particular conceptualisation, each from a viewpoint from which they have been derived. However, there are overlaps and in some cases contradictions as to how place might be defined.

The literature review, in summary, supports the view that a study of a place in the public arena should respect three main factors – social, spatial and symbolic dimensions – as guiding points to illustrate the comprehensive picture of place and to conceptualise its multilayered and complex character. While the importance of this conceptual categorisation is emphasised by all disciplines involved in the study and conceptualisation of place, each discipline studies the concept of place from diverse perspectives, related to their goals and objectives. Most of the approaches typically interpret place either in terms of its objective, material features or in terms of the individual's subjective view of the features. In this study, the socio-spatial dimension of place is a composite of the material and the symbolic features. Therefore, this research is attempting to integrate the objective and subjective perspectives within the proposed framework for place; in other words, the degree to which a place has been transformed by its users through their experience, from a space of physical elements into a symbolically meaningful place, which in the case of this study, serves as an important criterion for describing and comparing different settings.

Despite the commonalities across disciplines, their different approaches to the understanding of the concept of place, as reflected in their different interests, have kept them apart, leaving a gap in the knowledge and each discipline's direction of inquiry divergent. Whereas architecture tends to analyse place mainly as a physical entity, human geography turns its focus more on the people and their social life, and psychology of place concentrates on the study of human behaviour.

Accordingly the main issues identified through the literature review are as follows:

3.4.1 Overlap between two concepts of space and place

While the literature in all disciplines defines the two concepts of place and space discretely, in many cases two concepts are used interchangeably. This is more problematic in 'planning', as the focus of the discipline is primarily on development of

spaces. Also, in ‘architecture’, most of the attention is on ‘public spaces’ as a portion of the city. In practice, the meaning of both concepts often merges. It is however difficult to separate the two concepts, as in the most basic definition of place, it is a portion of space; what begins as indistinguishable space becomes place when people begin to know it better, to care about it and endow it with value. In this context when one talks about the spatial qualities of place, one can equally reference the locational qualities of space; therefore, as Tuan (1977) suggests, both ideas – ‘space’ and ‘place’ – need each other for definition.

3.4.2 Individual subject disciplines’ theoretical and methodological limitations fail to provide a complete picture, and there is no consensus on the attributes of place across them

Due to a monodisciplinary perspective, each discipline illustrates a part or parts of the multifaceted image of the concept of place. In philosophy, while the impact of the spatial attributes is greater than the other two components (social and symbolic), in the continuum of social-physical-symbolic, the orientation of philosophical place tends towards spatial-symbolic attributes. In contrast, the orientation of ‘place’ in human geography is towards social-symbolic attributes.

3.4.3 Issues of current models and theorisations of place

The model of place proposed by Canter (**activities, physical attributes, conception**), is similar to Relph’s definition of place (**social activities, physical features, meaning**); while a decade later, Punter (**activities, physical setting, meaning**) and then Montgomery (**activities, form, image**) used analogous conceptualisations of place. The latter two, however, elaborated on the key attributes in each category, but it can be argued that these models are essentially the same. These models have been repeatedly cited and referenced during the last four decades, yet remain as a theoretical recommendation, but need further validation and empirical examination. In contrast, other practical tools such as the framework of place developed by the Project for Public Spaces (PPS, 2013) suffer from lack of academic support.

3.4.4 The interaction of attributes and their relative importance (hierarchy) to the creation of place is unclear

The literature review found a number of models and conceptualisation of place across all disciplines, which recommend a great number of – from their perspective – key attributes of place. These attributes, as shown in the theoretical framework for this research and as stated above, still need further validation and empirical examination.

More importantly, none of the existing literature proposes any type of grouping to show interaction across attributes and to illustrate their relative importance.

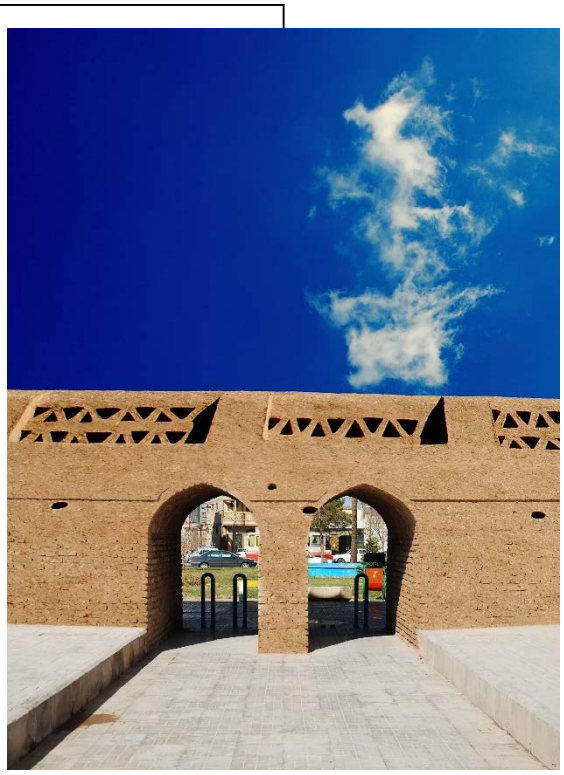
This means that one cannot identify which attribute has more impact on place, or which group of attributes might have a greater role in identification and analysis of places in the public arena.

3.4.5 There is little or no tested evidence to support how attributes fit under social, spatial and symbolic dimensions

After examining the different approaches to the study of place and channelling them into particular approaches appropriate to the scope of the research of place in the public arena, it appears that investigation of the individual aspects of place usually proceeds by isolating one of the specific dimensions of the social, spatial and symbolic. Each of the stated definitions seems to refer to one or more aspects of a multifaceted phenomenon of place. Indeed, the diversity in the definitions of place comes mainly from the fact that place is a social, spatial and symbolic entity, yet it is evident from the above that existing approaches fail to capture the interdependencies between the attributes, the dimensions and their joint relationship.

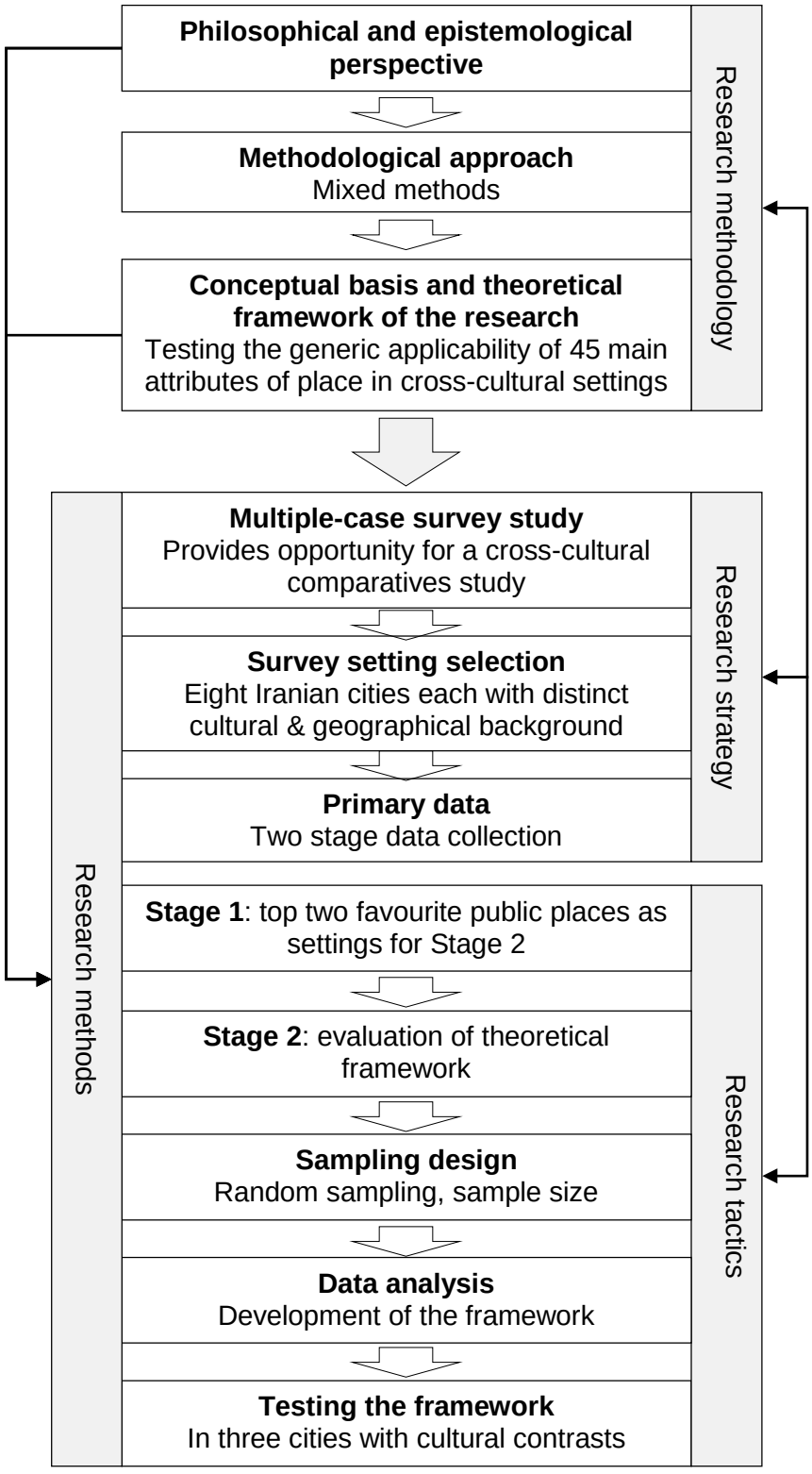
Although the dimensionality and multifaceted nature of place has been recognised by the literature across all reviewed disciplines, none of them are capable of providing a clear definition for such dimensions. Many of the attributes fall into more than one dimension, and perhaps this categorisation cannot provide a useful stimulus.

The next chapter is dedicated to the research design and methodology.



Research Design and Methodology

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology



4.1 Introduction

This chapter develops a methodology and procedure of a multisite survey and data collection for providing evidence to examine the main attributes of place, which were identified in Chapter Two, in a cross-cultural context. In this stage, based on the research questions and the approach in the conceptual framework, it is necessary to make strategic choices about which methods and sources are the most appropriate for answering the research questions. Therefore, as Mason (2002) indicates, the methodological strategy, which lies behind the research design, can be defined as the logic by which to go about answering the research questions and to achieve the research aim. In the first stage of developing the research methodology, the research uses the existing body of literature to set out the epistemology and introduces the mixed-methods systematic investigation approach.

It is important to differentiate between methodology and methods applied to a discipline. While methodology is the study of methods, and in general explains the philosophical and epistemological foundations of the research process, methods are a number of specific techniques for empirical material, based on the philosophical assumption. Figure 4.1 shows the relationship of four main components of research methodology, which are philosophy, theory, strategy and tactics. Research design is therefore built on

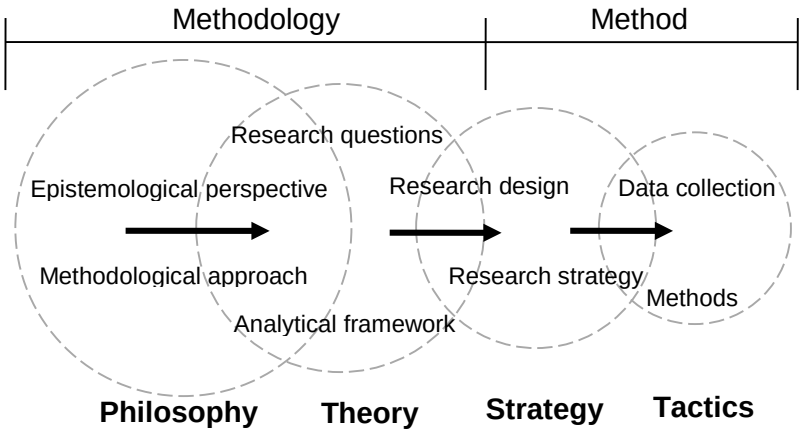


Figure 4.1: Key components of the research methodology (Source: after Groat and Wang, 2002, p 87)

the conceptual framework and theoretical perspective. The strategy is the overall research plan or structure of the research and the tactics are the specific techniques used, such as data collection devices, response formats, and analytical procedures.

4.2 Research methodology

The research methodology to be adopted for inquiring into the study of place in urban setting needs to be capable of handling the complexity of the phenomena involved. As discussed in the previous chapters, it is believed that place is a multifaceted and complicated phenomenon (Canter, 1977, 1985), whose problems interact in complex ways. In this context, no specific method or a single tool is able to unravel all facets of place and their relationship. In this chapter the research explores the appropriate ontological and epistemological approach to respond to the research inquiry. This section discusses the main epistemological assumptions and then justifies the adoption of the chosen philosophical views.

4.2.1 Philosophy of the research

Research philosophy concerns the way a researcher thinks regarding the development of the research process. Philosophy also provides guidance and principles for the research to act upon. It is particularly important in the way that a researcher's philosophical stance will affect the selection and adoption of research methods. It is useful when a researcher knows about the philosophical issues of different research fields; these issues fundamentally affect the research in several ways such as methods of data collection and data analysis. In the methodology domain, theories could be placed in one of two main epistemological concepts, namely positivist and post-positivist.

The positivist worldview embraces certain assumptions about 'truth' and 'reality'. Positivists believe that the researcher is an objective, observer and reporter of data; in other words, the object of study is independent form the researcher (VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009). To this tradition, only positive facts and observable events are recognisable; in simple words, those things which can be seen and measured. The use of systematic and scientific method and language such as statistical analysis and measurement of variables are based on this paradigm, with an emphasis on objectivity, neutrality, measurement and validity. The alternative view, post-positivist, believes that the knowledge is co-produced and conjectural, based not on a concrete fact, and 'absolute truth can never be found' (Creswell, 2009, p.7). From this viewpoint, the approach to research should be interpretive and therefore emphasises meaning and experience.

For positivists reality is solid and can be examined. In the late twentieth century, this idea was challenged by post-positivism when it was suggested that instead of one version of reality, there are multiple ones; one person's reality might be different from another's.

While these realities exist alongside one another, when investigating a phenomenon, research should understand the collective of these realities. This idea is comparable to Knox's (1987) description of place, when he says that different people give different meanings to place; a place holds multiple realities for each group or individual, reflecting the way places are socially constructed. Hermeneutic, interpretative and phenomenological are some of the main research philosophies within post-positivist epistemologies. Amongst them, the phenomenological, in particular, is interested in people's experience of the world as a valuable source of data.

Both positivist and post-positivist paradigms are found not only to be different but are mutually exclusive (Gilbert, 2008). From a philosophical stance, the positivist paradigm uses deduction, beginning with theory, developing hypotheses and collecting data, while the post-positivist paradigm follows induction: the process of finding a case and observing relationships. Table 4.1 shows a brief comparison of positivist and post-positivist approaches, their basic philosophy, main scope of inquiry and the items that the researcher should consider in research design and preferred research methods.

Table 4.1: Summary of philosophical stance of positivism and post-positivism. Adapted from Gilbert (2008), Cavana *et al*. (2001), Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002), Deshpande (1983)

	Positivist/quantitative	**Post-positivist/qualitative**
Basic philosophy	The world is external Observer is independent Science is value-free	The world is socially constructed Observer is part of it Science is driven by values
Scope of inquiry and what researcher should do	Focus on measurable facts Try to measure phenomena Look for causality Develop hypothesis Reduce phenomena to simplest elements Explain about how relationships operate Works outcome-oriented Analytic - particularistic approach	Focus on meanings Try to understand phenomena Look for totality Develop ideas Discover perception, values, and belief systems Works process-oriented Holistic approach
Preferred methods	Quantitative methods Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured Taking large samples Naturalistic observational measurement Objective: 'outsider's' perspective; distanced from the data Using concepts	Qualitative methods Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena Usually small samples Samples investigated over time Subjective: 'insider's' perspective; close to the data Using multiple perspectives

As this research is concerned with people's perception and meaning of place, aspects of the phenomenological approach are also found useful to the research. By drawing on phenomenology, the research seeks to examine the people–place relationship, by investigating the accounts for actions in place, and whether this relationship is based on

'reasons' or 'natural happenings' (Allen, 2005). Phenomenological research, in this sense, is an attempt to describe phenomena by emphasising first-hand experience (Moran, 2000). In the context of this research, phenomenology is the investigation of what appears in 'place', in which it manifests itself through people's experience and perception of place.

Seamon has extensively researched and developed the phenomenological approach in the fields of environmental psychology and human geography (Seamon, 1979, 1982, 1987, 2000; Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000). He argues that the relationship between people and place needs to be studied as one entity. He calls this 'phenomenology of lifeworld', and categorises this under existential phenomenology. For Seamon (1982), three important themes relating to the phenomenology of lifeworld are: '1) the nature of human experience, particularly as it has relation to the physical environment; 2) the nature of world, particularly its environmental and geographical aspects; and 3) the nature of the person-environment relationship as it can be understood in terms of lifeworld and "being-in-the-world"' (Seamon, 1982, p.124).

4.3 Mixed-methods approach

Mixed-methods research offers, philosophically and methodologically, a useful middle position. It also offers a more practical and outcome-oriented method of investigation for further action and the elimination of doubt (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007); more importantly, it offers flexibility for developing mixed methods that can help to answer the research question practically.

A quantitative approach supports the research to develop factual knowledge and research studies based on statistical data (surveys, questionnaires) which are replicable in different settings with comparable statistical data. A qualitative approach, however, would investigate the subjective experiences of place derived directly from people: for example, interviews, open questionnaires, case studies and ethnographic studies. While the qualitative approach provides a richer and deeper understanding of the subject, a quantitative approach offers statistical data and insight into patterns of relationships between factors and variables involved in the description of phenomena.

Amaratunga *et al.* (2002) observe that both methodologies have some strengths and weaknesses, and explains that the quantitative approach is faster, more economical and can cover a larger population, but the data collection methods and tactics are inflexible. For the phenomenological paradigm, the data collection procedure is more natural and

provides a better understanding of people's meanings and ideas. However, the phenomenological approach can be repetitive and extensive.

Finally, as the main concern of this research is to investigate the cross-cultural experience of place in the public arena, it is therefore fundamental to obtain participants' experiences of their local public places. In this context, the appropriate approach to support theoretical issues and assumptions is by the means of direct analysis from participants through data collection from multiple survey studies. In order to understand and record individual opinions, views and concerns about place in such complex phenomena, a flexible qualitative or semi-open approach is required. To support the study with cross-comparison data, a quantitative statistical survey study is also necessary.

While, on a philosophical level, some commentators have strong opinions that mixed methods are theoretically suspect (Maxcy, 2003; Charles & Tashakkori, 2009), the debate over methodological approaches is ongoing and there is a continued tension between qualitative and quantitative research. Most qualitative researchers believe there is no single objective reality; there are multiple realities that are created by the participants in a study and through their interactions with the researcher (Davis, 2003). Furthermore, while qualitative strategies seek to investigate the orders that govern phenomena, quantitative strategies based on positivism seek to explain and sometimes to control it. Moreover, various quantitative research designs have been carried out within controlled, partially controlled, and real-life environments (Marans & Ahrentzen, 1987; Creswell, 2009); whereas qualitative methods mainly emphasise naturalistic, non-laboratory settings (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008).

One of the major purposes of this study is to ensure better understanding of place and placemaking in an urban setting. For some writers (Banerjee, 2001) the major criterion for understanding urban places is socio-economic development, while other aspects of people–place relationships, such as the spatial, cultural and symbolic dimensions, are rarely considered in the planning and decision-making process. In practice, when it comes to evaluating the general quality of a place, it is usually believed that the sense of place is personal and there is no general pattern in the way people respond to different environments (Rofe, 2004). However, authors such as Lang (1987) argue that social behaviour in the environment does not occur randomly, but has a general pattern and a certain regularity. Therefore, the ability to make predictions in identifying places depends on the quality of the understanding of different dimensions of people–place relationships

such as social, cultural, spatial and symbolic aspects (Madanipour, 2006; Carmona *et al.*, 2010).

The assessments of place in an urban setting have been based on both qualitative measurement and objective assessment (Nasar, 1998; Bonaiuto *et al.*, 2004) and on quantitative scales and subjective reading of the environment (Kallus, 2001; Kahana *et al.*, 2003). Studies of place satisfaction and place attachment, for example, which are based on quantitative and objective measures, tend to concentrate more on the public space as a whole and enquire about people's overall relationships with the wider context such as neighbourhood (Rofe, 2004). The major shortcoming of quantitative research in this approach is that, when making the evaluation, the experience of different cases has to be statistically aggregated to make a generalisation about the subject as a whole. In the process of carrying out a quantitative study, misrepresentation can be easily be introduced because the respondents may be tempted to follow social norms rather than to reveal their perceptions and intimate feelings (Kallus, 2001; Rofe, 2004). Accordingly, there is a strong possibility that their first-hand knowledge of their city, neighbourhood and public places can prejudice their responses (Madanipour *et al.*, 2001; Rofe, 2004).

Regarding the purpose and the relative utility of qualitative versus quantitative methods, researchers suggest a harmony between these two points of view, seeing them as two ends on the same continuum rather than as entirely opposed methodological and philosophical orientations (Tashakkori & Teddli, 2003; Creswell, 2009). Therefore, some commentators strongly encourage the adoption of a mixed methodology, qualitative and quantitative, that embraces the advantages of both approaches (VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009). In this context there is some literature indicating that qualitative and quantitative approaches can complement each other when synthesised into a mixed method (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008; Creswell, 2009); it is necessary to accept both kinds of methods specifically (Low, 1987) to understand complex research problems and applications.

It is unlikely that the arguments about choosing between objective and subjective environmental features, or between qualitative and quantitative measures, in assessing place in the built environment will soon be universally resolved (Madanipour *et al.*, 2001). Consequently, employing a mixed-methods approach, as illustrated in Figure 4.2, can be posited as a useful strategy to obtain a better understanding of urban phenomena and examine the influence of the built environment on people's and people–place relationships.

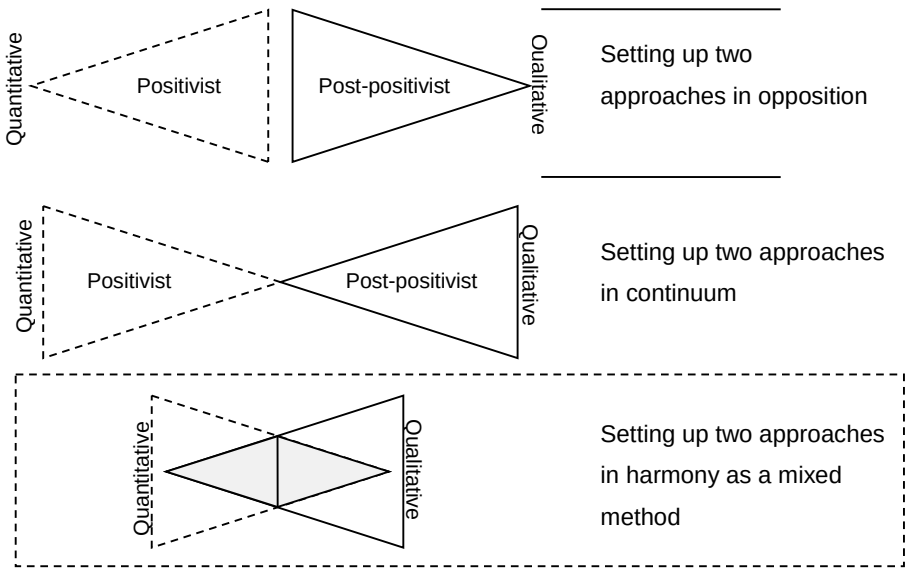


Figure 4.2: This research employs a mixed-methods approach. Different terms are used by various authors for this approach, including integrated or combined methodology, convergence, quantitative and qualitative methods, multi-method and multi-methodology. However, recent authors use the term mixed-methods (Creswell, 2009). Source: author.

Based on these arguments, and since this research seeks to describe users' behaviour statistically as well, as it seeks to explain and understand the subjective perspective of different users related to public place provision, it is hoped that employing both qualitative and quantitative methods enhances the evidence for the research findings. Accordingly, while quantitative investigation looks for empirical boundaries and tends to measure 'how much' or 'how many' questions, the qualitative methodology deals with 'how' and 'why' questions and endeavours to study the complexity of place in the public arena in their everyday context (Groat & Wang, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

However, it is important to clarify that 'a dichotomous distinction amongst quantitative and qualitative data is not particularly useful, because it ultimately refers only to whether or not the data were coded into numbers or coded into text' (Tashakkori & Teddli, 2003; Axinn *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, collected data can potentially be used in qualitative or quantitative analysis. In summary this research employs a mixed-methods approach to provide comprehensive data for both methods of analysis (Bryman, 1988). Place in the public arena cannot be thoroughly analysed using one of the qualitative and quantitative techniques. As asserted by the theoretical framework of the research, place cannot be merely analysed by only one of its facets; therefore, the quantitative approach assists the research to analyse place from the rational point of view and the reality of place, while qualitative methods investigate intangible qualities inherited in the meaning of places, forming people's perceptions.

4.4 Research method

Philosophical and epistemological underpinning of the research provides coherence and a sense of direction. The mixed-methods approach of the research leads the research in a specific direction in order to identify the research method; first to select a strategy or system of inquiry, and then to identify the specific tactics and instruments for the conduct of the research.

4.4.1 Research strategy

The research strategy in this study contains several levels of process. The first is the research proposal, which has been identified through the literature review and research statement, developing aims and objectives of the study. The third level is the development of the research outline through the research strategies, tactics and techniques, including data collection and data analysis, within the conceptual context of the research.

This research employs a mixed-methods approach to investigate the research enquiry. By employing a mixed-methods strategy, this research collects and analyses primary information from different types of data. In this sense, mixed methods are sometimes cross-referenced to multistrategy research (Bryman, 2008). Qualitative research tends to favour a research strategy which is relatively open and often enhances the opportunity to come across unexpected issues which may be of interest to the research enquiry. In contrast, quantitative research strategy tends to adopt a structured approach to study the subject. To a large extent this strategy employs surveys and experiments that investigate a number of established issues derived from a theoretical framework. Such investigations require mapped-out variables prior to data collection, imposed on the participants (Bryman, 1988).

4.5 Research design

Research design is a 'plan' that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting data (Yin, 2003), and includes the procedures for selecting settings, defining the key steps of the study, and the ability to generalise the research findings. A research design, as defined by Yin (1994), is the coherent sequence of events that connects the main elements of the research. It relates the generated data to the research aim and objectives of the study and finally to its conclusions. The general research design in this research includes following key stages: 1) the identification of the aim and objectives; 2) the development of the conceptual basis and theoretical framework derived from the literature review; 3) the research methodology; 4) the data

collection including the pilot study; 5) the development of the framework; and finally 6) the testing of the framework and conclusion of the research process which provides responses to the research inquiry and findings. Figure 4.3 shows a diagrammatic hierarchy and relationship of the research components.

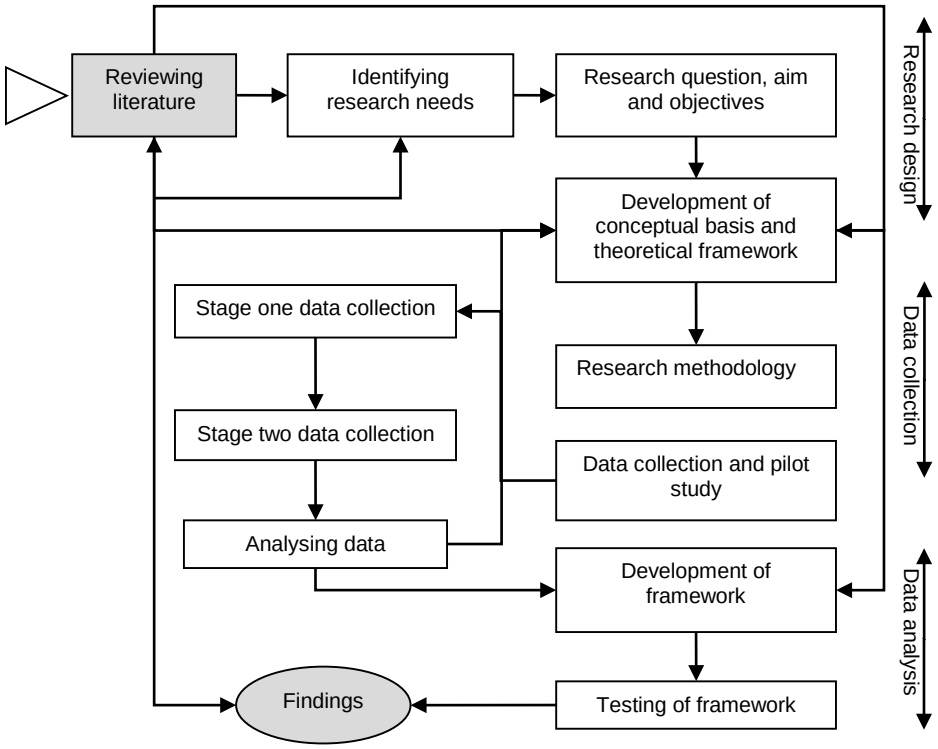


Figure 4.3: General research design and relationship of subjects

4.6 Multiple-case survey study

Researchers in the field of environmental behaviour and place study have extensively employed survey designs in their investigations. Moreover, they have used survey design research tools, such as questionnaires and structured interviews. Previous studies in urbanism and public spaces also recommended the use of large samples in multiple locations (Carmona *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, a multisite survey study approach was chosen as the most feasible means of gathering the necessary qualitative and quantitative primary data for this research.

Considering the sub-classification of survey designs, most of the aforementioned studies have adopted cross-sectional survey designs which are characterised by collecting data at a single point in time from a population, or from a sample of the population (Lynch, 1960; Appleyard, 1970; Nasar, 1998). However, there are also a number of studies using longitudinal survey designs to collect and analyse data over a period of time. Meanwhile, some authors have applied phenomenological research designs to environmental

behaviour and place studies (Seamon, 1987; Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000); and a number of relevant research works, such as Cooper Marcus's (1992), have been carried out in this fashion.

4.6.1 Two-stage study

The methods by which the research generates data for the study reflect the methodological underpinning of the research. In this context, research should employ methods of enquiry to produce data for both qualitative and quantitative analysis. As a result, the empirical core of this research is a two-stage study strategy. At the first stage, a semi-open questionnaire provides data for categorisation and interpretation as well as systematic selection of the settings and samples for the second stage of the survey study.

The second stage is a survey study employing a structured questionnaire for further analysis. This is followed by an analysis of the findings derived from both stages of the survey. The results of this survey provide the basis for the development of the framework in which to answer the research enquiry.

4.6.2 Selection of survey settings

The study of places, in the cross-cultural context, is more than simply a consideration of location and size. The character of a place can be illustrated by various components. Elements such as ethnic, internal economic, social and political articulation, physical and spatial organisation and religion are just some of the more obvious ones. In an urban environment various factors can affect the quality and diversity of public places. For this study, research narrows the issues to looking at how places are experienced from a multicultural perspective. The selection of the survey settings forms an important part of the research. While the use of multiple-case designs was recommended over a single-case design (Yin, 2003) at the outset, the multiple-case strategy was guided by the nature of the research enquiry to investigate ‘place’ in a cross-cultural context.

To allow the inclusion of the widest cultural and geographical diversity and in order to achieve the research aim and objectives, six main criteria were considered in the selection of settings. Figure 4.4 describes the criteria and their relationship to fulfil the main goal of the research.

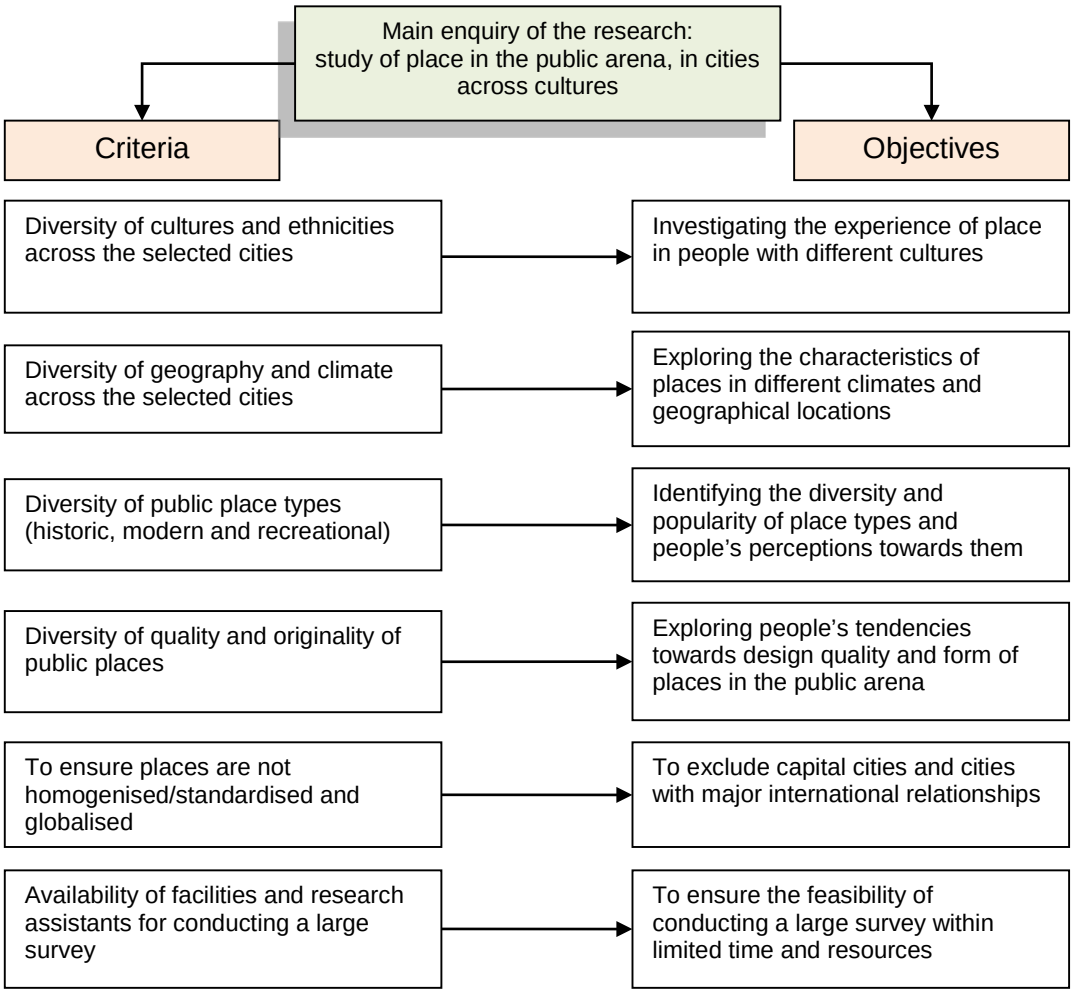


Figure 4.4: Research setting selection criteria to allow the research to find locations with maximum cultural diversity.

In the search for appropriate survey settings various locations with cultural and geographical diversity were considered (e.g. Canada, USA, China, Iran and India). It proved difficult to identify a manageable number of cities and locations within the timescale of the research. Iran proved to be a good example to provide a cross-cultural investigation of cities and public places.

Iran is a crossroads of ethnic minorities (Field, 1968); the multitude of peoples, tribes, colonies, languages and religious denominations belongs to its historical origins of major international importance and influence. Being strategically positioned at the geographical crossroads between East and West (Figure 4.5), the country contains a great cultural and ethnic diversity. Described as 'the land of Aryans', Iran has a unique position in bridging Asian–European history. Along with India, it has served as a source of primary material for European cultures and economies (Asgharzadeh, 2007).

Located at the midpoint of the Silk Road, the country played a fundamental role in the trade of goods and culture between East and West for centuries. The history of what is now known as Iran is a history of various ethnic groups, languages, and cultures coexisting amongst one another. From the establishment of the first civilisation around 7000 BC to the current modern Iran, it has been a multiracial, multicultural, and multilingual society (Ghirshman, 1954; Poorpirar, 2001; Ethnologue, 2009).

Figure 4.5: Iran is located strategically between East and West. Source: Adapted from Wikipedia map, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iran, accessed 18/06/2011

Ethnically, religiously, linguistically and geographically, it is a very diverse society, despite the fact that Persians make up the major ethnic group; however, the diversity can hardly be described in simple categorisations. Iranian cities often take various forms in different regions amongst different ethnic and cultural groups (Kheirabadi, 2000).

It is a very unique situation that all these populations with various cultural differences are found in a single country (Daniel & Mahdi, 2006), which makes it a good choice for cross-cultural studies. The people who constitute this diverse population, however, are distinguishable from one another through easily identifiable cultural characteristics such as language, religion, ethnic affiliation and geographical location (Asgharzadeh, 2007). For the aforementioned reasons and the fulfilment of the selection criteria, one major city was selected from each distinct geographical region to represent these different cultures.

The cities of Isfahan (Persians), Tabriz (Azeris), Mashhad (mixed: Turkmens, Kurds, Persians), Kerman (Persians), Shiraz (mixed: Persians, Qashqai, Lurs), Bandar Abbas (Arabs), Hamadan (mixed: Turks, Kurds) and Sari (Mazandaranis) were selected. Each city is located in a different province and represents different cultures, ethnicities and geographical characteristics. Figure 4.6 illustrates the location of the selected cities and indicative boundaries of major ethnic groups.

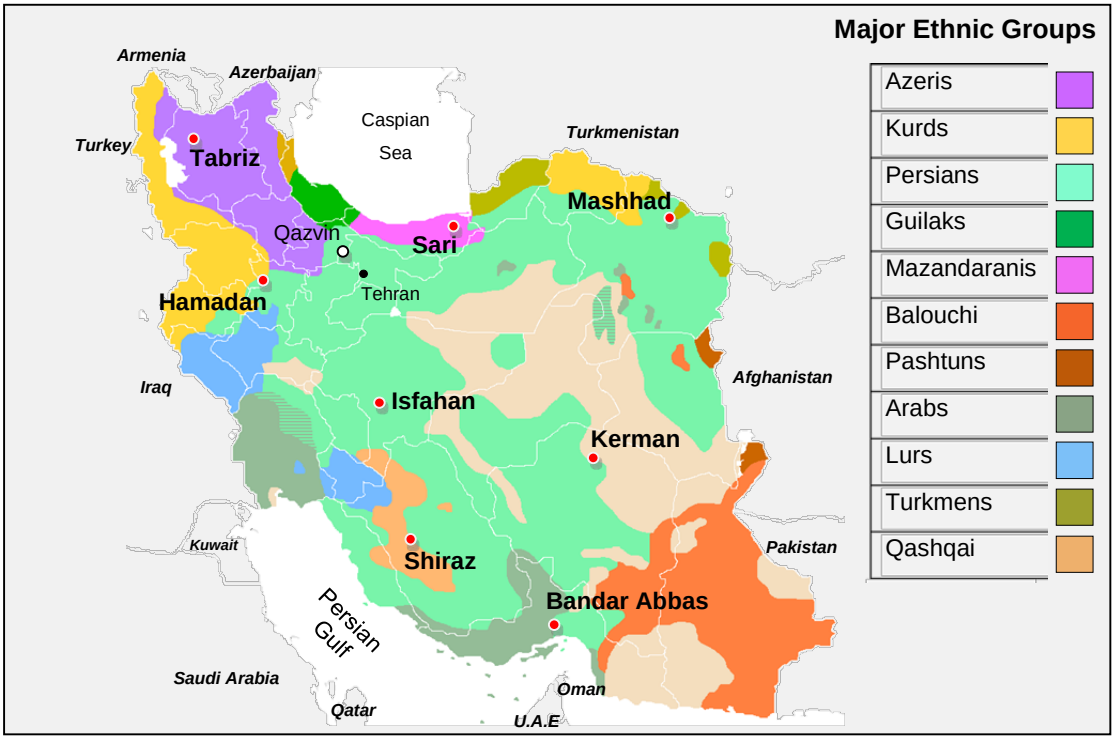


Figure 4.6: Survey city distribution. The boundaries shown on this map are indicative, not precise. Adapted from a variety of sources, including: Aghajanian (1983); Hassanpour (1992); Daniel & Mahdi (2006); Asgharzadeh (2007); Ethnologue (2009).

The city of Qazvin was selected for the pilot study, as section 4.9.1 describes. Qazvin is a medium-sized city and a former capital of Persia (1576–1627); it also represents a great mixture of modern and historic places with cultural and ethnical diversity; its population includes Turks, Kurds and Persians.

After the initial selection of Iran, based on the selection criteria, the research was successful in the application for an award of a fieldwork grant from the Iranian Ministry of Housing and Urban Development to support the research during the survey study, which therefore confirmed the selection.

4.7 Research tactics

This section introduces the steps that the research utilises for the procedure of data collection and analysis. The research tactics are specific techniques, such as steps for sampling, data collection devices, and analytical procedures.

4.7.1 Sampling design

The main goal of a survey research is to provide data that represents the whole population and thereby ensure the reliability of the data; therefore, sampling is an important step in the research method. To be able to generalise from the findings, the research must establish an accurate relationship between the selected sample and the target population. Research projects with an unconvincing sampling process can potentially experience a number of biases which consequently reduces the validity and reliability of the research. The potential risks of biases are identified as illustrated in Table 4.2 (Babbie, 1990, 2007; Rubin & Babbie, 2007; Bryman, 2008).

Table 4.2: Possible biases and method of mitigations to be employed by this research

Possible bias	Descriptions	Mitigation
Spatial bias	Where sample includes only those who are easily accessible at the time/place	Data to be collected from a variety of areas within the cities
Professional and project bias	When samples are direct primary stakeholders	Samples to be selected from all city residents except tourists and travellers
Temporal bias	Where data collection takes place only at a certain time	Data to be collected on multiple weekdays and at weekend
Language bias	Where language of interviewers is different to that of respondents	Interviewers to be selected from local residents

Satisfactory sampling should therefore be concerned not only to avoid bias, but to ensure representation of different groups and individuals in both the research process and survey analyses, and also to take into account the inherent biases against the different communities (for example, disadvantaged individuals or those of a different gender) whose views and participation are essential to reaching realistic and reliable conclusions (Oppenheim, 1992). In principle, a representative sample of a population should be drawn so that every member of the population has the same probability of being included in the sample; in other words, that every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected.

4.7.2 Sampling procedure

In the selection of samples, systematic random sampling (stage one) and criterion sampling (stage two) are used. The proposed mixed methods of research and the nature of the information required from the case studies are compatible with using systematic sampling within each study area. This research employs multistage sampling, as the samples of the first stage identify the settings and sample frames for the second stage.

For the first stage, the research utilises random sampling, as it is one of the most common selection procedures, in which each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected, and those representative samples from a particular population provide the ability to generalise for the whole population (Babbie, 1990). As a result, to avoid any human bias, the respondents are selected by choosing residents of the study cities with a skip of ten, where for every nine people passed over, the tenth one will be selected as the participant.

Stage one identifies the settings for the second stage of the data collection. For the selection of settings and samples of the second stage, it is important that participants have experienced the place being studied and are able to clearly express themselves. Procedurally, these requirements translate into non-random samples in which participants are intentionally selected for their experiences and ability to articulate the subject matter (Seamon & Mugerauer, 2000). This method of sampling is called purposive or criterion sampling (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008; Creswell, 2009).

4.7.3 Sample size

Many researchers in the social sciences suggest that, for precision, a confidence level between 95% and 99%, with a 5% margin of error, should suffice for a survey study (Lindsay, 1997; Varkevisser *et al.*, 2003; Rubin & Babbie, 2007). A very high degree of accuracy nearly always requires a large sample. However, a large survey will also be costly and time-consuming. The main aim in determining the sample size is that it should be broad enough to illustrate a range of differences and influences and deep enough to provide rich description and represent the population; however, the accuracy of samples, in terms of the selection process, is more important than the sample size (Oppenheim, 1992, p.43).

The sample size will, in practical situations, always be a compromise between cost and precision (Bethlehem, 2009). More importantly, the fundamental for both qualitative and quantitative research from a random sample is the size of the sample and the quality of

selection, rather than the population size. The size of the population is largely irrelevant to the accuracy of the sample (Kalton, 1983; De Vaus, 2002b).

For the calculation of sample size in survey studies, statistics employ a mathematical procedure and there are various formulas for calculating the required sample size. However, to determine the sample size, this research was assisted by a table of random sample sizes (Appendix B) which has been widely used and recommended (De Vaus, 2002b; Saunders *et al.*, 2006; Babbie, 2007, 2008).

Table 4.3 illustrates the sample size across the selected survey cities. Therefore, in order to maintain the recommended confidence level, this research anticipates completing between 384 to 663 survey questionnaires for each stage.

Table 4.3: Sample size. Populations are based on the 2006 national census from the Statistical Centre of Iran (SCI, 2006).

		5% margin of error	
Survey city	**Population**	**95% confidence level**	**99% confidence level**
Qazvin	355,338	PILOT STUDY	
Mashhad	2,410,800	384	663
Isfahan	1,583,609	384	663
Tabriz	1,378,935	384	663
Shiraz	1,214,808	384	663
Kerman	496,684	384	663
Hamadan	473,149	384	663
Bandar Abbas	367,508	384	663
Sari	259,084	384	663
Total estimate of sample size		3072	5304

While it might look unreasonable to those with limited or no statistics knowledge, population size is almost irrelevant in survey studies. This is because in random sampling, the same statistical principles apply to both large and small populations. Therefore, for the same confidence level, a sample of about 384 people will represent a population of 1,000,000 people just as well as a population of 100,000. The best way to show the accuracy of sampling is through an analogy used for random sampling: '*Every cook knows that it only takes a single sip from a well-stirred soup to determine the taste*' (Kasunic, 2005, p.28). This analogy illustrates the importance of well-stirred soup to produce the random sample (sip) required to represent the population, regardless the size of the pot (population).

4.7.4 Validity and reliability

Another important component of any research is validity and reliability. Validity is the degree to which the findings of a study can be generalised beyond the sample used in the study. The ability to generalise is highly dependent on the quality of the sampling process (Creswell, 2009). Validity is also concerned with what the result is measuring is actually what it is meant to measure.

It is important to realise that a result might have an acceptable degree of reliability but still not able to measure what it is supposed to measure; therefore, it is important for the research to have both reliability and validity. Flick (2002) argues that validation could be done by triangulation of the data. Methodological triangulation is one of many types of triangulations. It involves using more than one method and can use qualitative and/or quantitative methods. Triangulation has been used in both qualitative and quantitative methods to prevent research findings being accused of using only a single method or source, or being affected by the researchers' bias. It is believed that the combination of multiple empirical materials and perspectives in a study adds rigour, richness and validity to any inquiry (Flick, 2002; Denzen & Lincoln, 2005).

This research seeks to establish the validity and reliability of the data and findings through various techniques. Validity and reliability of this methodology is achieved through the use of different qualitative and quantitative methods which together confirm the consistency of the facts and describe the existing variables in situation at the time of the study. For the validity of the sampling process, samples demographics will be validated by comparing the participants' demographics with the national census of Iran. To validate the findings of the survey, the results from both the surveys will be triangulated. It is anticipated that participants' responses to the expression of their reasons for the selection of their favourite places will provide the research with a number of attributes. These attributes will be triangulated with the main attributes of place as identified through the literature review.

In addition, statistical reliability and consistency of the findings from the second stage will be tested by measuring Cronbach's alpha (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), using SPSS.

4.8 Questionnaire design

In the design of questionnaires, the main difficulties are the complexity of variables required for the research, and the use of different questioning techniques, such as open or structured, for achieving better control of the variables. In this regard, two major considerations are the clarity and attractiveness of the questionnaires and the

compatibility of questions with the method of research. It therefore is considered necessary to pay particular attention to the design and layout of the questionnaires to help achieve a satisfactory response rate and to encourage the respondents to take part. In order to increase the attractiveness of the questionnaire, questions are designed in a positive manner and in short sentences. Another difficulty is to design questionnaires capable of being translated from English into Farsi without losing any of their originality and characteristics.

4.8.1 Two-stage questionnaires

To provide comparative data and validate the technique, it was decided to replicate the technique with the approach for all eight study cities (Yin, 2003). An introductory description of the research was written at the start of the questionnaires, which described the aims of the research and introduced the researcher; it also assured respondents of their anonymity and the confidentiality of the information.

4.8.2 Stage one

The main focus of this stage was to identify the settings for the second stage as the main survey study. To enhance the effect of clarity of the questionnaires, in the first stage, semi-open questions were used to enable the respondents to name two favourite places in their city of residence and to give their own reasons and descriptions about their choices of places, and their opinions and feelings about their selected favourite places. Due to the expected large sample size within eight diverse settings, and to reduce the complexity, the questionnaires were designed in a way to be conducted in a short time. Respondents were asked to name only two of their favourite places in the city and to provide only two reasons for each selected place; the collection of these reasons was used to provide detailed information for further interpretation. The first questionnaire asks respondents to: ‘1) name two favourite places in your city, 2) describe two reasons for each of your selections’.

Two favourite places in every city were then identified as the setting for the next stage of the survey. The reasons for their selection were used to analyse respondents’ perceptions towards their favourite places. A sample of complete questionnaires in Farsi and English are presented in Appendices A1 and A2.

4.8.2.1 Stage two

Following the theoretical discussion in Chapters Two and Three, the theoretical framework, consisting of 45 main attributes of place, was developed. The second stage

of the survey study was designed to evaluate the participants' attitudes and behaviours to these main attributes of place and within their favourite places in their city of residence, which were identified through the first stage.

In this stage, a statistical analysis is utilised, which is one of the major approaches in psychology and behavioural study of place. The main attributes of place (as identified in Chapters Two and Three) are used as variables to measure the relationship between people and place. Data is collected only from residents of the surveyed cities; demographic variables are also included such as gender, age and educational level. The demographics of the respondents can be used to verify the quality of the collected information, when positively correlated and compared with the whole population.

In the design of the questionnaires, the research was assisted by a number of recently published empirical studies (Shamai, 1991; Gustafson, 2001; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Kaltenborn & Williams, 2002; Stedman, 2002; Herzog & Leverich, 2003; Stedman, 2003b; Williams & Vaske, 2003; Kyle *et al.*, 2004; Kyle *et al.*, 2005; Shamai & Ilatov, 2005; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2006; Turner & Turner, 2006; Brown & Raymond, 2007; Fleury-Bahi *et al.*, 2008; Ewing & Handy, 2009; Hammitt *et al.*, 2009; Gosling & Williams, 2010; Raymond *et al.*, 2010) as best practice guidance. These were consulted to provide a tested approach in developing analytical methods and designing the questionnaires. A summary of some of the research is illustrated in Table 4.4.

The five-point Likert scale (5- Strongly agree to 1- Strongly disagree) system was adopted. The Likert scale has been widely used in quantitative researches, mainly because of the reliability of the technique, and because it also permits a greater range of answers from a large number of respondents (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 200).

Table 4.4: Recent researches about place and their characteristics. FA= Factor Analysis, Quali= Qualitative, Quant=Quantitative, LSQ= Likert Scale Questionnaire

Author's name (year)	Paper description	Sample population/ location	1) Sample size, 2) No. of questions/ measures 3) Instruments used	Method/ Analysis
Radfar (this research, 2013)	Placemaking in the public arena	Residents of 8 Iranian cities (+ 3 British & Irish cities)	1) 7901 (two stages) Q1: 2 Semi-open Q2: 47 items, 5 point LSQ	Mixed/ FA
Raymond *et al.* (2010)	The measurement of place attachment	Rural landholders in South Australia	1) 1643 2) 29 items 3) 4 point LSQ, mail survey	Quant/ FA
Goslin *et al.* (2010)	Connectedness to nature/place attachment	Northwest Victoria, Australia	141 farmers	Quant/ FA
Hammit *et al.* (2009)	Comparison of place bonding models	National Forests in South Carolina	424 campers	FA
Fleury *et al.* (2008)	Place identity	Residents of three French cities	1) 257, 2) 24 items, 3) 4 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Beerli *et al.* (2007)	Self-congruity and destination choice	Visitors to Kenya, Paris and Dominican republic	1) 552, 2) 6, 3) 7 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Brown & Raymond (2007)	The relationship between place attachment and landscape values	Residents of the Otway region of Victoria (Australia)	1)1900, 2) 17 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Turner & Turner (2006)	Place, sense of place and presence	Staff and students of Aalborg University (Denmark)	1)27, 2) Photo-interview, 3) N/A	Mixed/ Quali
Ewing *et al.* (2005)	Measuring urban design quality	22 cities, 48 video clips	1) 10 (panel of experts), 2) 9, 3) questionnaire	Mixed/ correl/co efficient
Kyle *et al.* (2005)	Dimensionality of place attachment in recreational setting	Visitors to Baxter state park (USA)	1) 1630, 2) 12 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Kyle *et al.* (2004)	Relationship between place motivation and place attachment	Subscribers to Cleveland Metropark's publication	1) 860, 2) 31 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Herzog & Leverich (2003)	Searching for legibility	Undergraduate students, Midwestern United States	1) 352, 2) 40 images, 3) 5 point LSQ	Mixed/ FA
Stedman (2002)	Social psychology of place	Villas County property owners	1) 1000, 2) 37 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA, ANOVA
Kaltenborn & Williams (2002)	The meaning of place attachment	Commune of Roros and Femundsmarka National Park, Norway	1)438, 2) 4 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ ANOVA
Jorgensen & Stedman (2001)	Sense of place as an attitude	Lakeshore property owners in northern Wisconsin	1) 282, 2) 12 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Williams & Patterson (1995)	Measuring place attachment	Students of various universities, USA	1) 380, 2) 25 items, 3) 5 point LSQ	Quant/ FA
Shamai (1991)	Sense of place: an empirical measurement	Jewish high school students in Toronto	1) 155, 2) 6 items, 3) 6 point LSQ	Mixed

In the design of the questionnaires, therefore, an attempt was made to provide questions for cross-checking and to find correlation amongst attributes and respondents across all settings. Questions were translated into Farsi (the official language of Iran), and were tested by a pilot study in the city of Qazvin (see section 4.9.1). Table 4.5 illustrates the main attributes of place and the associated statements which were used for the survey questionnaire.

Table 4.5: Main attributes of place and associated statements used for design of the questionnaire for the survey study in top two favourite places.

Attributes of place	Statements to ask participants (I chose to be here because)
Accessibility	Easily accessible
Adaptability	I can change it to suit myself
Appropriation	I always go to a specific part (feel relaxed there)
Attachment (emotional)	I grew up here
Attachment (functional)	It is important to me
Childhood memory	Childhood memory
Claim	I can have my own corner (e.g. picnic)
Cleanness	It is clean and tidy
Design quality	I like the design (architecture and landscape)
Discovery	I find new things here
Everyday routine	I come here everyday
Familiarity	It is familiar to me
Feeling safe	I feel safe during daylight
Freedom of action	I am free to stay and do my things
Historical significance	Part of the local history
Identity by place	I feel here is mine and it is a reflection of me
Identity of place	It is a landmark for the city
Image	Image and appearance
Legibility	I can easily find my way (without getting lost)
Meaning	It has a special meaning to me
Meaning through name	I like its name
Meeting place	Good for meeting friends
Naturalness	I am close to nature
Novelty	Its new and modern
Past experiences	Past experience
Personal history	I like the historic features
Personalisation	I can be by myself (without disturbance)
Physical activity	Play, exercise and leisure activities
Physical comfort	I like to sit here
Physical distance (close)	Close to where I live
Physical distance (far)	Far from where I live
Physical protection	Protected from traffic, wind, cold, rain
Position in social order	I feel I am a different person here
Presence	I can be seen by others
Presence of others	To be around other people
Psychosocial comfort	Feel comfortable
Relaxation	Feel relaxed here
Restorative effect	It is calm and quiet
Satisfaction	I feel satisfied and happy
Social accessibility	Good location in the city
Views and vistas	Good views
Vitality	It is busy and full of life
Walkability	I can walk around
Watching	I can see others
Wider context	I like it for the surrounding shops and streets

4.9 Data collection procedure

Data collection was undertaken from December 2008 to February 2009. Prior to travel to Iran, contacts were made with all major universities within the selected survey cities. Initial arrangements were made with the person responsible (generally the head of department) for recruiting a number of volunteer students as interviewers. The Iranian Ministry of Housing and Urban Development (MHUD) arranged accommodation and travel, and provided an office and emergency contacts in each city. In addition, the MHUD issued a permit to conduct the research in Iranian cities and to avoid any political misapprehensions, provided the researcher with a sponsored letter and introduced the researcher to local police, the Ministry of Interior Affairs and the Ministry of Intelligence. The data collection procedure started with a pilot study in the city of Qazvin, which led to the correction and completion of the final questionnaire and a contextual understanding of the research and respondents' preparedness for conduction the final interviews.

4.9.1 Pilot study: quality control of methods and assessment of methodology

Conducting a pilot study is common practice and an important part of survey research design; it allows the research to correct itself and to produce a series of data collection protocols. The purpose of this pilot study was to enable the research to ensure the wording of questions was understandable, and ascertain the time needed to complete the survey. After measuring the reliability and validity of the instrument, the pilot study was used as a template for the main data collection and aimed to find any possible deficiencies in the research methods. The purpose of the pilot study is described in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Main purposes of conducting a pilot study

Purpose	Applicability to this study, and the identified issue
To check the questionnaire wordings, layout and sequence	Yes, some wordings and sequence of questions changed
To familiarise the researcher with the context and respondents	No, researcher was familiar with the context. Interviewers selected from local university students
To identify the fieldwork needs and requirements	Yes, various minor requirements identified
To identify the training needs for interviewers	Yes, interviewers were trained prior to data collection
To estimate the questionnaire's completion time	Yes, completion time was more than initial estimate. Allowed more time
To understand any cultural constrains	Yes, prior to data collection local residents and professionals were consulted
Any other unexpected issues	Nothing major identified
To check for non-sampling error	Yes, female respondents reluctant to answer to male interviewers Young children relied on their parents to answer the questions
To assess the overall feasibility and validity of the method	Yes, pilot study proofed

4.9.2 Non-sampling error

During the pilot study, the aim was to ensure that respondents understood and replied to questions as they were intended to provide data for the inquiry. A major consideration for the pilot study was ensuring that data collection would be valid and reliable across variety of cultures. Bulmer and Warwick (1993) point out that sampling design in developing countries with ongoing cultural developments is different from the usual circumstances of conducting a social survey in developed countries. This particular consideration of sampling techniques is of crucial importance for this study.

In this context, behaviour in Iran is governed by a high respect for privacy, with special regard to women and their life in the public domain. At the early stage of the pilot study, this issue was identified by male interviewers, as women respondents were reluctant to answer their questions. In order to overcome this potential anomaly, female interviewers were recruited for the research phase. Interviewers were instructed to work in groups of a minimum of two, consisting of at least one female interviewer.

4.9.3 Interviewer training

The pilot study revealed that, although all the interviewers were selected from students who were studying relevant postgraduate and undergraduate disciplines such as architecture, urban design and planning, they still encountered difficulties in understanding the research questions, mainly the concept of public space. In order to mitigate this issue, all interviewers participated in a training session, prior to conducting the final data collection in every city. They were also instructed not to convey any ambiguity to the respondents. Dependent upon the resources and the size of the individual city, between 12 and 25 students were trained for each location.

4.9.4 Age limit

During the pilot study, it was emerged that children were highly dependent upon their parents' decisions in the selection of public places. For this reason and for ethical issues, it was decided that children under 18 would be excluded from sampling. No upper age limit was enforced.

4.10 Main data collection

Following the pilot study and after assessing and correcting the validity and reliability of the instruments and the method, the main study was conducted in eight selected cities, which are shown in Figure 4.7 ranked by their population size.

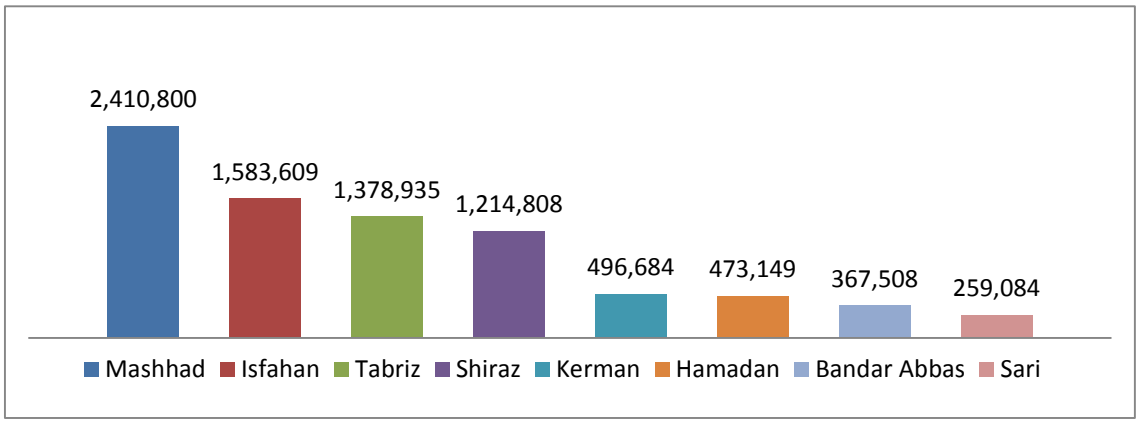


Figure 4.7: Population of survey cities. Source: 2006 National Census (SCI, 2006)

In order to ensure data was collected consistently and rigorously in a systematic manner, all interviewers were asked to follow the general protocol of the research. An assembly point in every city was identified and a list of interviewers with their contact telephone numbers was established. Interviewers were asked to report to the researcher every hour with the number of completed questionnaires and to notify their associated universities on the day(s) of the interview. 'No go' areas in every city were identified and excluded from the sampling.

To prevent any spatial bias and to capture the diversity of samples from all parts of the survey settings, cities were divided into six to ten neighbourhoods. Respondents were selected at random with a skip of ten and at different times of the day. To ensure consistency and to avoid any temporal bias, data collection was undertaken three times a day – morning, afternoon and evening – as well as during both the working week and at the weekend. Figure 4.8 illustrates the process of the data collection.

In both stages, respondents were approached by the interviewers and asked to participate in the study. They were informed about the nature of the study, the type of questions and the approximate time of the questionnaire. If they did not agree to participate, the immediate next person was asked until a respondent accepted.

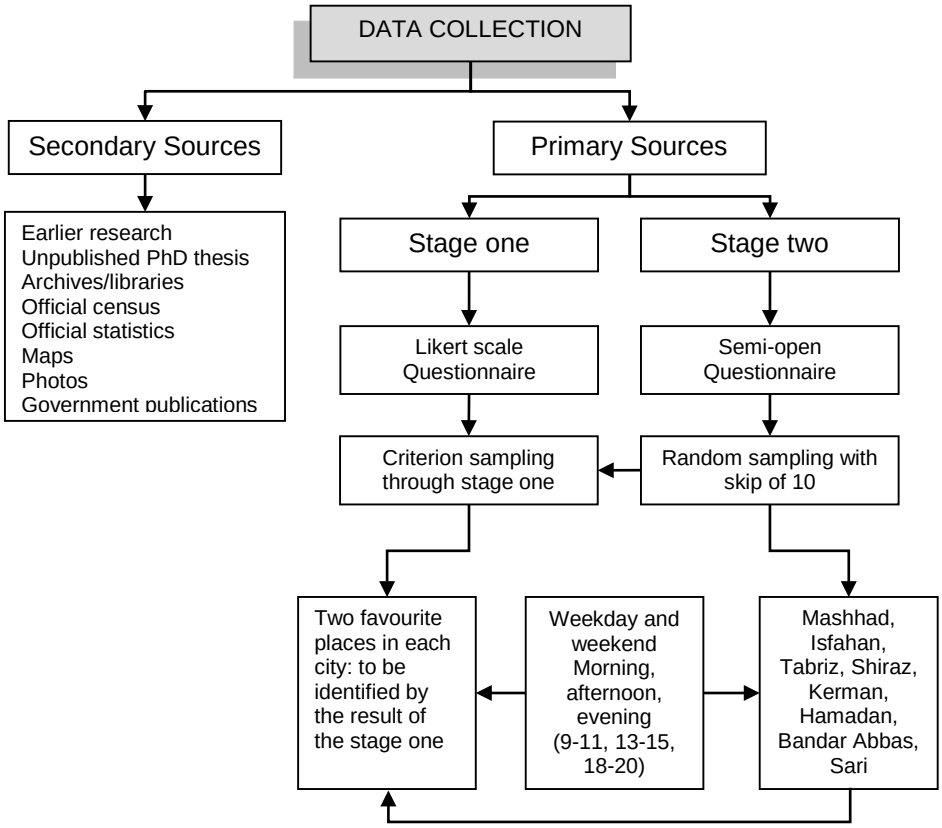


Figure 4.8: Data collection process

4.10.1 Timeframe

Following the initial preparation, selection and training the interviewers on the first day, a maximum of six days were then spent in undertaking both stages of data collection in each of the eight sample cities. In order to rationalise the process, a target of between 384 and 663 respondents/completed questionnaires was set (see section 4.7.2 for sampling procedure). If the number of completed questionnaires reached the maximum target set within the timeframe, then the research immediately proceeded to the next stage. At the end of the third day, providing the minimum number of responses required had been reached, the research moved to the next stage.

This resulted in variations amongst the number of completed questionnaires in the eight sample cities. The time needed for each questionnaire also varied, from 5–10 minutes for stage one to 10–20 minutes for stage two, not including the time spent for sampling, which proved impossible to calculate. Table 4.7 shows the time spent in each sample city and the number of completed questionnaires.

Table 4.7: Duration of survey and number of completed questionnaires in the eight sample cities

		Number of completed questionnaires	
Survey study cities	**Duration**	**Stage 1**	**Stage 2**
Mashhad	7 days	623	648
Isfahan	7 days	528	498
Tabriz	7 days	498	523
Shiraz	7 days	595	623
Kerman	6 days	402	423
Hamadan	6 days	426	493
Bandar Abbas	6 days	387	439
Sari	6 days	397	398
		3856	4045
		Total of both stages: 7901	

4.10.2 First stage

In this stage respondents were asked to name their two favourite places in the public realm of their cities. The open nature of the questionnaire allowed people to express two reasons for each of their selections. The restriction of two reasons encouraged participant to thoughtfully select their key two reasons for their choice of place.

Participants were limited to the residents of the sample cities through walking random sampling, with a skip of ten; therefore, after nine people passed by one was selected. The questionnaires were analysed at the end of each day to identify the settings for the second stage of data collection. At the end of the first stage, the two most favourite public places within the sample cities were identified. The results are presented in the next chapter.

4.10.3 Second stage

In this stage it was assumed that all respondents who were in the selected places were part of the sample frame, and as residents they would be familiar to some degree with the attributes of the place. The objective was to encourage people to rate the attributes of place based on the associations they had formed over time as a result of their everyday experiences within these places. A structured questionnaire was implemented with a five-point Likert scale. This scale holds the following meanings: 5- Strongly agree, 4- Agree, 3- Neutral, 2- Disagree, and 1- Strongly disagree. Participants were again selected through random sampling with a skip of ten, and were approached by the interviewers with an introduction to the research and explanations regarding the selection of the place as one of the top two favourite places in the city: this would be no surprise

to the respondents, as it was their choice to be there as well. The results from this questionnaire formed the basis for a quantitative analysis and are presented in Chapter Five.

4.11 Analytical techniques and interpretation

The data collected for this research falls into two categories: data about the subjective responses to the environment, that is, about the characteristics of place; and the respondents' perceptions, which was collected by means of verbal descriptions through the first stage. The second stage recorded the responses to the key attributes of place, to form the framework and to understand the generic qualities of public places across participants from different cultural and geographical backgrounds. Data analysis involved both analytical holistic thinking and inductive analysis. Qualitative analytical methods were employed for the analysis of the data collected from the first stage, and statistical techniques for the second stage.

4.11.1 Stage one: qualitative analysis

Miles and Huberman (1994) view data analysis as consisting of three types of activities: data reduction, data display, and conclusion and verification. By 'data reduction' they refer to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data. 'Data display' is an organised, compressed assembly of information that permits the research to draw conclusions and verify them. Data displays in this research include many types of matrices, graphs, charts and tables. Spiggle (1994) presents a different classification for the process of data analysis to include coding, categorisation, abstraction, comparison, dimensionalisation, integration and interpretation. In practice, these activities (Figure 4.9) are neither discrete nor do they occur in an ordered and sequential manner.

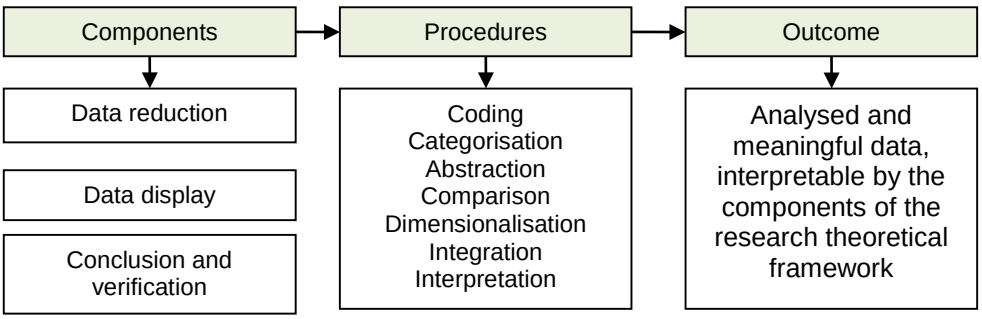


Figure 4.9: Data analysis main components, adapted from Miles and Huberman (1994), Spiggle (1994)

The analysis of the first stage, drawing on the first-hand experience of the respondents, followed the steps mentioned above and consisted of coding and categorising, sorting the recorded material to identify similarities, finding relationships between themes, identifying commonalities and differences, and generalising and formalising data in ways for it to become meaningful and interpretable by the research theoretical framework.

4.11.2 Stage two: statistical analysis, factor analysis

Quantitative data obtained from the second stage of the survey was analysed by using statistical techniques. Statistical data reduction techniques were utilised to reduce the data to those attributes with the highest correlations (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009). Factor analysis was employed to investigate the meaningful relationships amongst the main attributes of place. This technique is used extensively in social science and urban studies to identify the underlying variables measured by the data collected. Field (2009) describes four main uses of factor analysis: 1) to aid the understanding of the structure within a set of variables; 2) to assist the construction of a questionnaire and measure the underlying variables; 3) to reduce a dataset to be more manageable while still retaining as much of the original information as possible; and 4) to simplify complex datasets by finding natural groupings within the data.

Following the data analysis and interpretation, a theoretical framework for place in the public arena was generated. The proposed framework was then tested in the three cities of Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin. Sample city selection followed the same selection criteria as the original data, but in a contrasting setting in terms of geography and culture compared to the original data collection.

The testing process was similar to the main data collection of the research; i.e. a two-stage data collection. Once the two favourite places of each city were identified through the first stage, the second survey questionnaire was implemented. This time the questions were reduced to those which had most correlation within the sample population, assuming that those remaining attributes were generic across cultures and across the samples of the main data collection. Testing was undertaken during October–November 2010.

4.12 Summary and conclusion

This chapter provides the rationale behind the combination of two important research paradigms and methodological approach, for the analysis section of the research. The approach adopted is rooted in the cross-cultural inquiry of the research and the conceptual framework presented in the previous chapter. It has presented the theoretical

justification for the mixed-methods research design and traced the need for multiple-case survey research to examine the attributes of places in the public arena in cross-cultural contexts.

In brief, the main study took place in Iran. Fieldwork was conducted from December 2008 to February 2009. A pilot study was carried out to evaluate the research methods and consequently some method was altered and improved (see section 4.9.1).

In total, 8257 (including pilot study) questionnaires were completed. Primary data collected from the fieldwork in Iran was collated and analysed, using both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques, which provided information for the development of a proposed framework. Consequently the proposed framework was tested in three different settings with contrasting cultural settings; Chapter Seven is dedicated to the process of testing of the framework.

Figure 4.10 illustrates the schematic representation of the research process, and introduces the main stages of the study, their contents, and the relationships and hierarchy of the subjects. It provides evidence regarding the appropriate research strategy used by the research. The next chapter focuses on presentation and discussion of the research results. It provides the analytical discussions for the study.

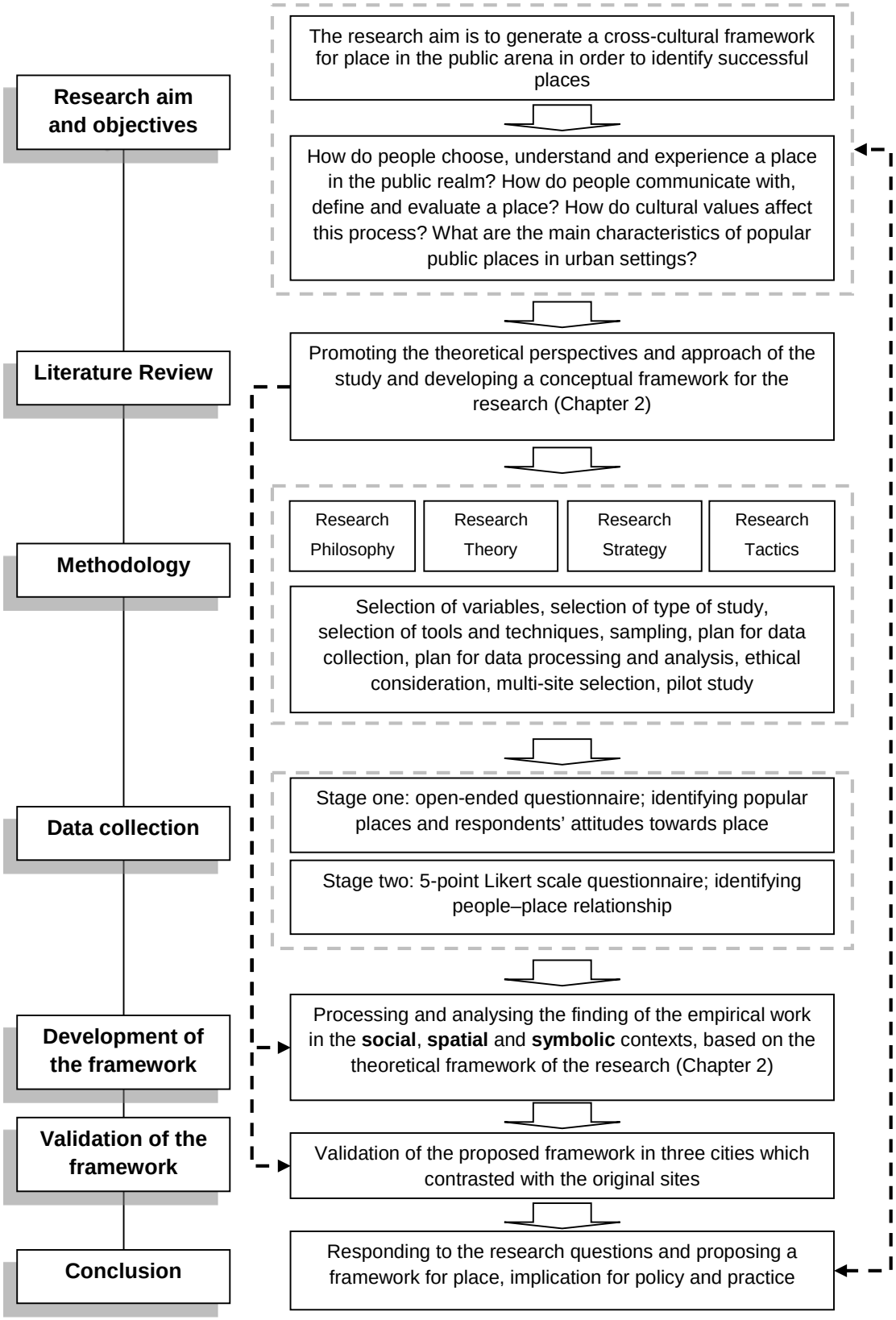
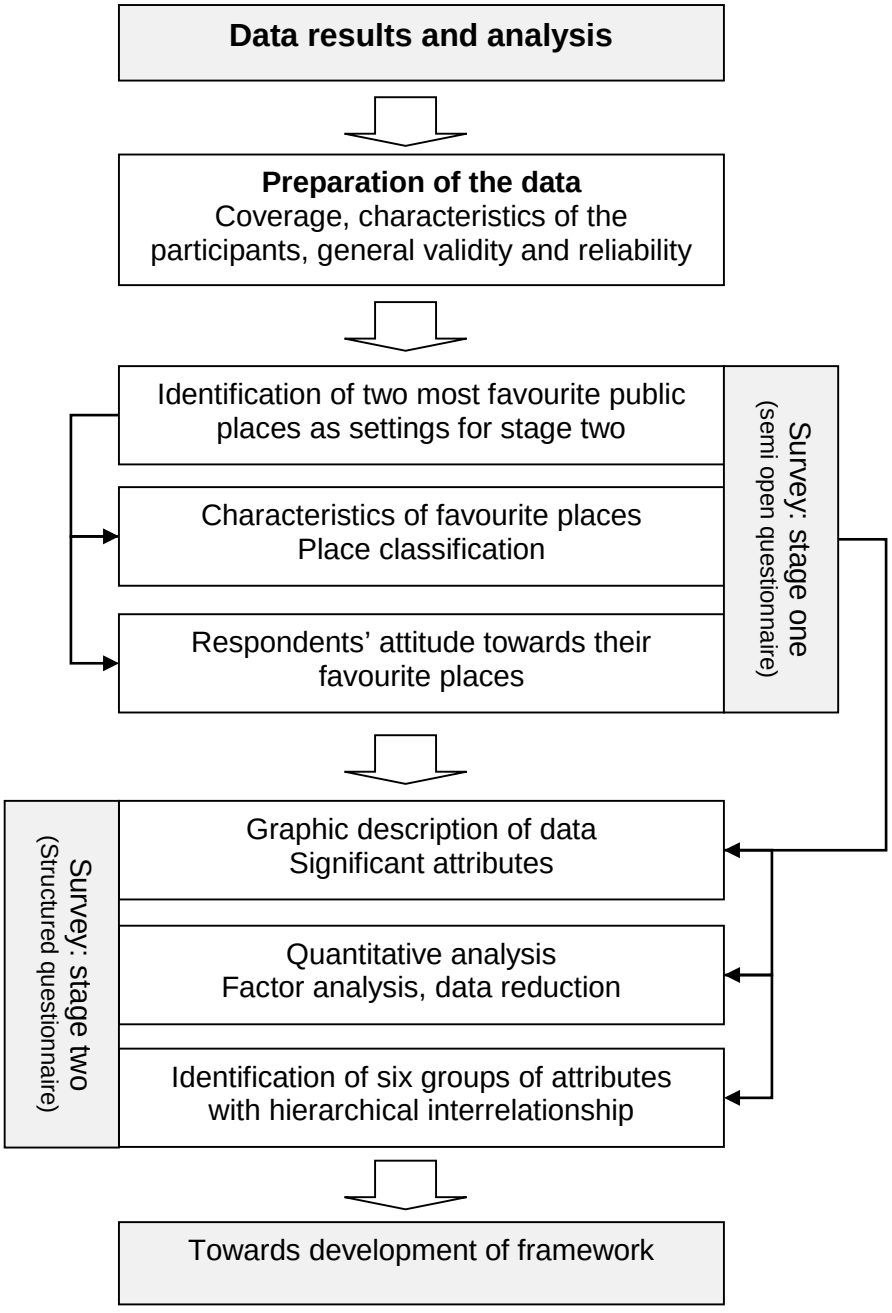


Figure 4.10: The schematic representation of the research process; introduces the main stages of the study, their contents, the relationships and hierarchy of the subjects; provides evidence and pointers regarding the appropriate research strategy to be used.

Data Results and Analysis

Chapter 5: Data Results and Analysis



5.1 Introduction

In order to achieve the research objective – to identify the interrelationship and hierarchy of attributes within favourite places – this chapter aims to discover the relationship between the attributes of place. As explained in Chapter Four, the research design adopts mixed methods with a two-stage data collection strategy, in which an open-ended questionnaire was utilised in stage one and a survey questionnaire was applied in stage two. To return to the aim of the study, here the focus is to analyse the attributes of place and to identify the commonalities across different cultures. Common attributes will then form the components of the theoretical framework which may then be used for the analysis of places in the public arena of cities across all cultural settings.

5.2 Preparation of the data

For the open-ended questions of the first stage, a process of data encoding was carried out to convert the data into a manageable digital form, i.e. a data file, so it could be analysed. The questionnaire items of the second stage of the survey were maintained by Excel for further screening and then analysed through SPSS for Windows (version 19). In order to maintain the richness of responses derived from open-ended questions, the coding process began with a code sheet containing a large number of sub-categories, mentioned by the participants, which later on were reorganised within categories and ultimately within primary categories. In order to understand users' perceptions and their first-hand understanding of place, during the analysis, this research preserved the original vocabulary used by the participants as far as practically possible.

Descriptive statistics, and cross-tabulations, data reduction techniques and exploratory factor analysis were employed. Data reduction, by analysing the correlations, assisted in reducing the attributes to those with the highest correlation across the whole population. Exploratory factor analysis was employed to find the major patterns in respondents' responses and in order to structure the framework.

5.2.1 Coverage

The study covered all the municipal urban areas of the sample cities. For consistency in analysis tables comparing the survey cities, all tables will be in arrangement of descending order of the cities' population as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Survey cities, provinces and their geographical location, arranged in descending order by population. Source: Statistical Centre of Iran (SCI, 2006).

Survey study cities	Population*	Province	Location in the country
Mashhad	2,410,800	Khorasan-e Razavi	North East
Isfahan	1,583,609	Esfahan	Central
Tabriz	1,378,935	Azarbayjan-e Sharghi	North West
Shiraz	1,214,808	Fars	Central-south
Kerman	496,684	Kerman	South East
Hamadan	473,149	Hamadan	West
Bandar Abbas	367,508	Hormozgan	South
Sari	259,084	Mazandaran	North

5.2.2 Response to the study

Table 5.2 shows the number of responses in each stage and in total. Out of the eight survey cities, Mashhad had the highest number of complete responses with 1271, while the lowest number of responses was obtained from the city of Sari with 795.

Table 5.2: Number of responses to the pilot study and both stages of the survey.

		Responses to the survey		
Survey study cities	**Duration**	**Stage 1**	**Stage 2**	**Total of both stages**
Mashhad	7 days	623	648	1271
Isfahan	7 days	528	498	1026
Tabriz	7 days	498	523	1021
Shiraz	7 days	595	623	1218
Kerman	5 days	402	423	825
Hamadan	6 days	426	493	919
Bandar Abbas	6 days	387	439	826
Sari	5 days	397	398	795
	TOTAL	**3856**	**4045**	**7901**
Qazvin (pilot study)	3 days	174	182	8257 (in total)

5.3 Characteristics of the participants

With the information organised and categorised, it is then possible to analyse the data, and to identify the relationships. As samples were selected randomly from groups of people of different ages, genders and levels of education, there was no control over the spread of demographic of the samples. Table 5.3 shows a profile of demographic

variables of the 7901 participants in the main survey – 3856 from stage one and 4045 from stage two – which form the main analysis of the thesis.

Demographic details of the participants shows that 51% (n=4056) of the participants were male and 49% (n=3845) were female, while 74.5% of the participants were under 35 years of age. The balance of genders and the young population follow the national age profile of the country and increase the validity of the sampling. According to the 2006 census (SCI, 2006), two-thirds of the population were under 30, and about 50% under 20 years of age. A majority of the participants (35.9%, n=2838) were studying in higher education at the time of the survey.

Table 5.3: Characteristics of the respondents

Demographic	Categories	Percentage %	Numbers
Gender	Female	49.0%	3845
	Male	51.0%	4056
Education Status	Current students (secondary)	10.3%	815
	Primary & secondary (graduates)	18.4%	1452
	Undergraduates	28.8%	2275
	Postgraduate	6.6%	521
	Current university students	35.9%	2838
Age Group	18-25	52.2%	4130
	26-35	22.3%	1756
	36-45	11.1%	875
	46-55	8.4%	659
	56-65	4.5%	352
	66-75	1.2%	94
	76+	0.4%	35

5.4 Validity and reliability

Validity is the degree to which the findings of a study can be generalised beyond the sample used in the study. The ability to generalise is highly dependent on the quality of the sampling process (Creswell, 2009). For the statistical validity and comparative purposes of this study, and in order to increase the external validity of the research findings, external validity – through population validity (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007) – was employed to validate the data collected; therefore, the sample's gender ratio and age distribution were compared with the country's national statistics. Table 5.4 and 5.5 illustrate the comparison between the survey respondents' age profile and that of the whole Iranian population. The tables show a great similarity between the two, while the average age of the research participants is also comparable to the national average age

with a slight discrepancy, which could be because of the age limit of the samples at 18 years and above.

Table 5.4: Comparison of the participants' gender distribution and the Iranian national population.

	Categories	Sample population	National profile
Age profile	Male	51.0%	50.1%
	Female	49.0%	49.9%
Average age	Male	28.9%	28.0%
	Female	29.09%	27.98%

Table 5.5: Gender distribution across survey cities

Survey study cities	STAGE ONE			STAGE TWO		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Mashhad	337	286	623	307	341	648
Isfahan	272	256	528	220	278	498
Tabriz	259	239	498	226	297	523
Shiraz	288	307	595	329	294	623
Kerman	287	115	402	229	194	423
Hamadan	194	232	426	272	221	493
Bandar Abbas	205	182	387	229	210	439
Sari	167	230	397	235	163	398
Total participants from both stages: **7901**	2009	1847	**3856**	2047	1998	**4045**
Percentage	**52%**	**48%**		**51%**	**49%**	

As far as the design and construction of the questionnaire is concerned, methodological text books have emphasised factors of validity and reliability of the items included (Bryman, 2008; Bethlehem, 2009; Bryman & Cramer, 2009). In this research, an attempt was made to employ and adapt some of the standard questions utilised in the previous studies. This was done to meet two purposes: 1) to ensure the validity and reliability of the questions, as recommended and used by other researchers, such as questions to measure place dependence and sense of place; and 2) to provide a possibility to compare the results of the current study. Statistical consistency and reliability of the questionnaires was tested by measuring Cronbach's alpha (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) using SPSS, which will be discussed in section 5.8.2 of this chapter.

5.5 Stage one: data results and analysis

The first stage of data collection provides important information to achieve two goals; firstly, to identify the settings for the survey study, and then to investigate commonalities across cultures with understanding of the users' perceptions towards their favourite places in the public arena of cities. In the following, the top two favourite places, as identified by the respondents, are introduced.

5.5.1 Most popular public places

The first set of results from stage one of the survey reveal the two most favourite places in all survey cities, with the exception of Sari. At the end of stage one in Sari, 99 respondents could not identify any favourite public places in the city. Therefore, 'nowhere' was awarded second place in Sari's selection. To be accurate and consistent, the research followed the methodology and decided not to replace the second selection of 'nowhere' with the third selection.

Table 5.6 presents these places along with the number and percentage of the respondents. These places are the settings for the next stage of the survey study. There were no restriction on the choice of places and the places were selected amongst an unlimited number of choices in each city. In total across all eight cities, 739 different public places were selected (Mashhad: 107, Isfahan: 121, Tabriz: 84, Shiraz: 108, Kerman: 109, Hamadan: 64, Bandar Abbas: 74, Sari: 72).

Table 5.6: Top two favourite places in each city, with number and percentage of respondents selecting each place

Survey study cities	First favourite public place	Selection		Second favourite public place	Selection	
		n	%		n	%
Mashhad	Mellat Park	241	19	Kuh Sangi	199	16
Isfahan	Imam Square	198	19	Khajoo Bridge	101	9.5
Tabriz	Shah Goli	267	27	Valiasr Avenue	112	11.5
Shiraz	Hafezieh	206	17.5	Eram Garden	148	12.5
Kerman	Riaziat Park	73	9.1	Motahari Park	71	8.9
Hamadan	Ganj Nameh	206	24	Bu Ali Sina tomb	98	12
Bandar Abbas	Ghadir Park	174	22.5	Dowlat Park	89	11.5
Sari	Tajan Park	127	16	Nowhere	99	12.5

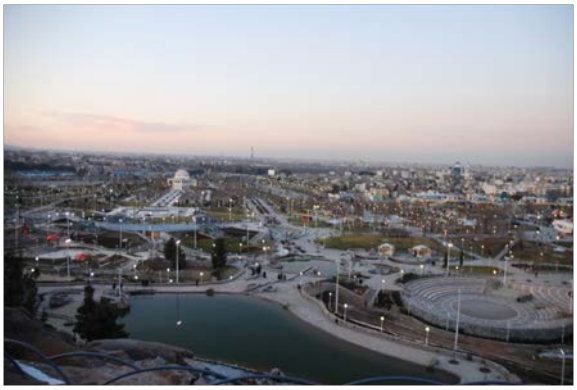
5.5.2 Description of top two favourite places

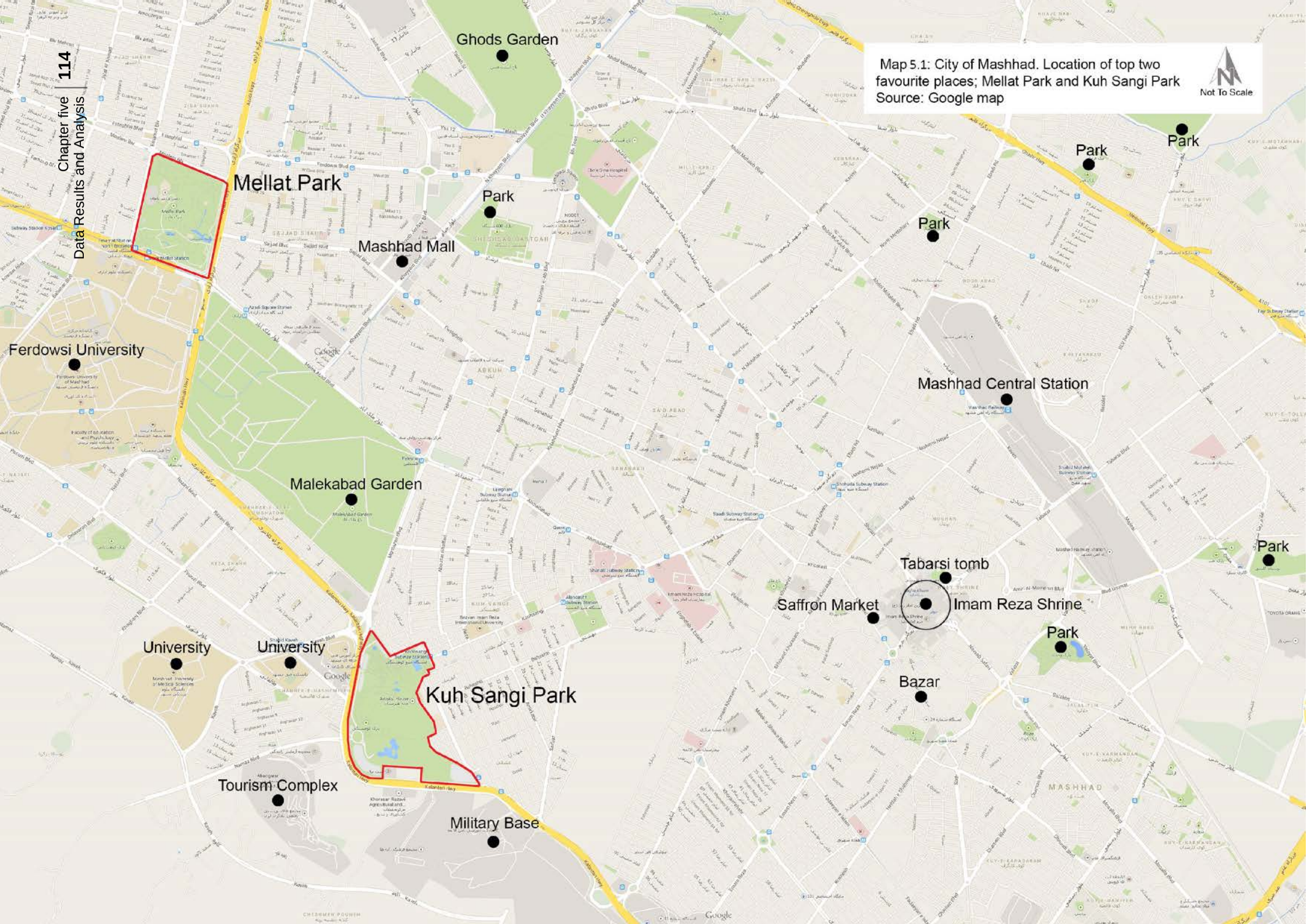
In the following pages a brief description of the two favourite places is presented. The name of the places is shown first in its local name, and then translation comes in English in parentheses.

City: **Mashhad (Map 5.1)** Selected places: **Mellat Park and Kuh Sangi Park**

Name	**Mellat Park (Nation Park)**
Location in the city	East/urban area
Main function	Park
Services	Children's play equipment, funfair, lake, chess area, water feature, grassed seating area, sculptures, coffee shop, restaurant, sport facility
Established	1966
Governance	Mashhad Municipality (public)
Size	720,000 m^2
Boundary	Permeable fence, open entrance
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Mashhad University, Vakil Abad Boulevard

Name	**Kuh Sangi Park (Rocky Mountain Park)**
Location in the city	South-east/urban outskirts
Main function	Park, picnic site
Services	Children's play equipment, lake, pools, water feature, seating area, mountain walk, city view, sculptures, coffee shop, restaurant
Established	1995
Governance	Mashhad Municipality (public)
Size	100,000 m^2
Boundary	Permeable fence, open entrance
Entrance fee	None
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Army base, Mashhad TV Centre





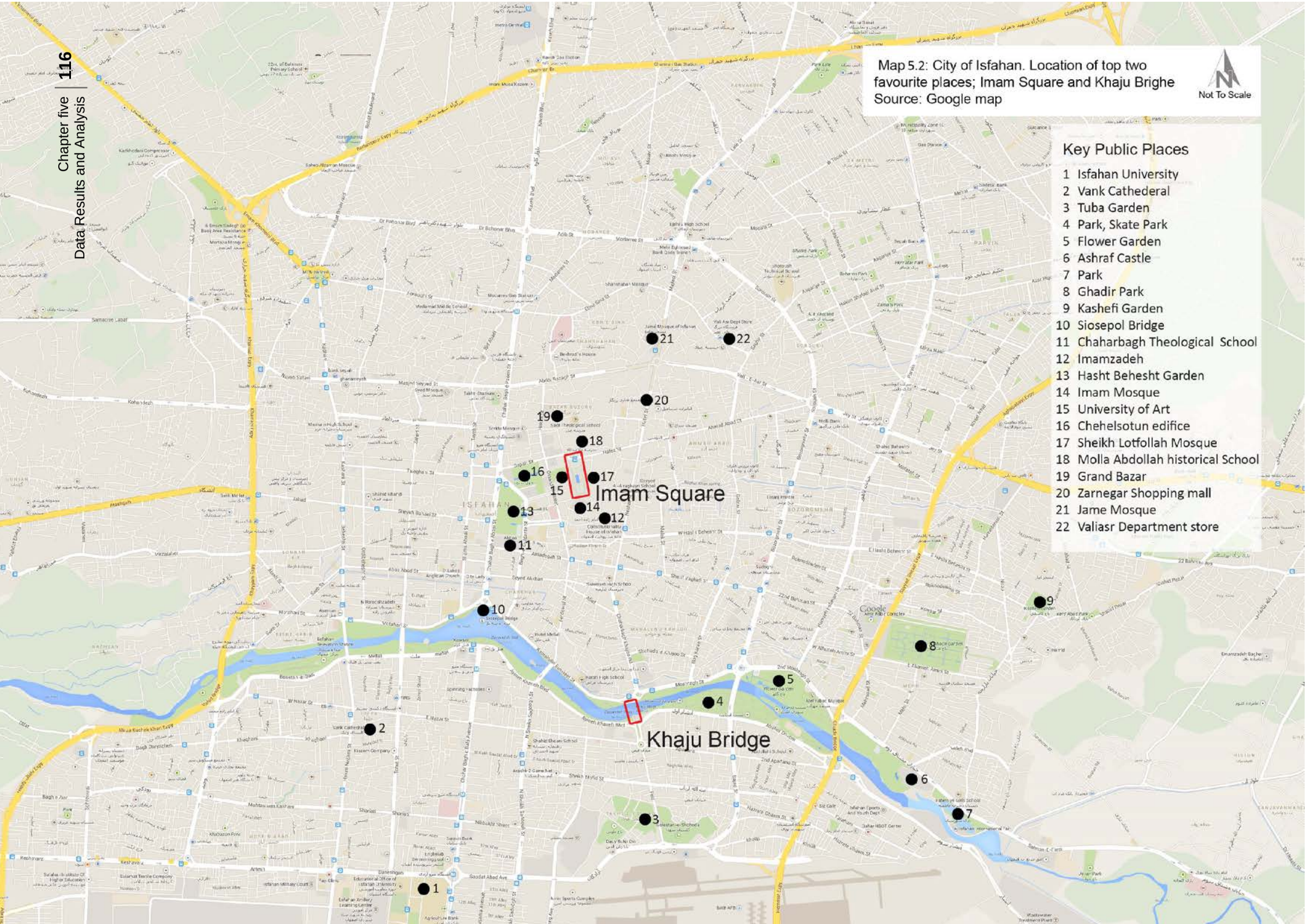
Map 5.1: City of Mashhad. Location of top two favourite places; Mellat Park and Kuh Sangi Park
Source: Google map

Not To Scale

City: **Isfahan (Map 5.2)** Selected places: **Imam Square** and **Khaju Bridge**

Name	**Maidan-e Emam (Imam Square)**
Location in the city	Central/historic urban area
Main function	Public square, shopping, tourist attraction, World Heritage site
Services	Entrance to the Grand Bazaar, traditional craft shop, water feature, grassed area, seating area, coffee shop, restaurant
Established	1590's
Governance	Isfahan Municipality, Iranian Cultural Heritage Organisation
Size	89,600 m^2
Boundary	Enclosed by historic buildings and shops, open entrance
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Entry to Grand Bazaar of Isfahan, Sheikh Lotf Allah Mosque, Ali Qapu Palace and Imam Mosque. Chehel Sotoun edifice, Hasht Behest garden

Name	**Pol-e Khajoo (Khajoo Bridge)**
Location in the city	South/urban area
Main function	Pedestrian footbridge over Zayandeh River and weir
Services	North-south link over river, recreational, seating area
Established	Around 1650
Governance	Isfahan Municipality, Iranian Cultural Heritage Organisation
Size	23 arches, 133 m long, 14 m wide
Boundary	Public parks at the side of the river
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Si-o She Pol bridge, Zayandeh River Banks Parks, Chahar Bagh-e Khaju Boulevard



Map 5.2: City of Isfahan. Location of top two favourite places; Imam Square and Khaju Brighe
Source: Google map

Not To Scale

City: **Tabriz (Map 5.3)** Selected places: **Shah Goli and Valiasr Avenue**

Name	**Shah Goli (The King's Pool)**
Location in the city	South-east/urban outskirts
Main function	Public park, picnic site, recreational
Services	Funfair, lake, rowing boat, picnic site, seating area, city overview, coffee shop, restaurant, sport facilities and outdoor gym
Established	1930 (in current form)
Governance	Tabriz Municipality
Size	2,200,000 m^2
Boundary	Permeable fence, open entrance
Entrance fee	None
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Hotel Pars, Sahand and Ferdows neighbourhood

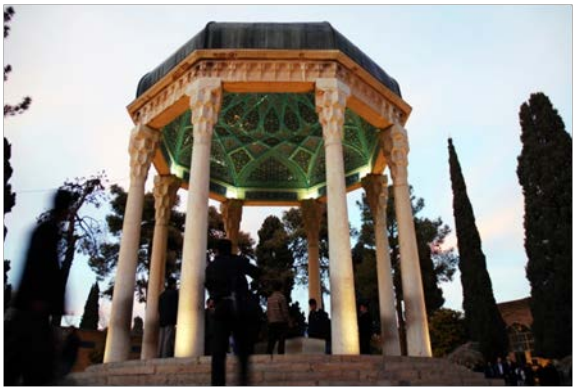
Name	**Khyaban-e Valiasr (Valiasr Avenue)**
Location in the city	East/urban area
Main function	Shopping, recreational
Services	Modern shops and boutiques, café, coffee shops, restaurant and takeaway
Established	1977
Governance	Tabriz Municipality
Size	400m long, 24 m wide
Boundary	Buildings, shops on both sides of the avenue
Entrance fee	None
Opening time	N/A
Nearest centre	Valiasr neighbourhood, Bagh Lar Baghi (park)

Map 5.3: City of Tabriz. Location of top two favourite places; Shah Goli and Valiasr Avenue
Source: Google map

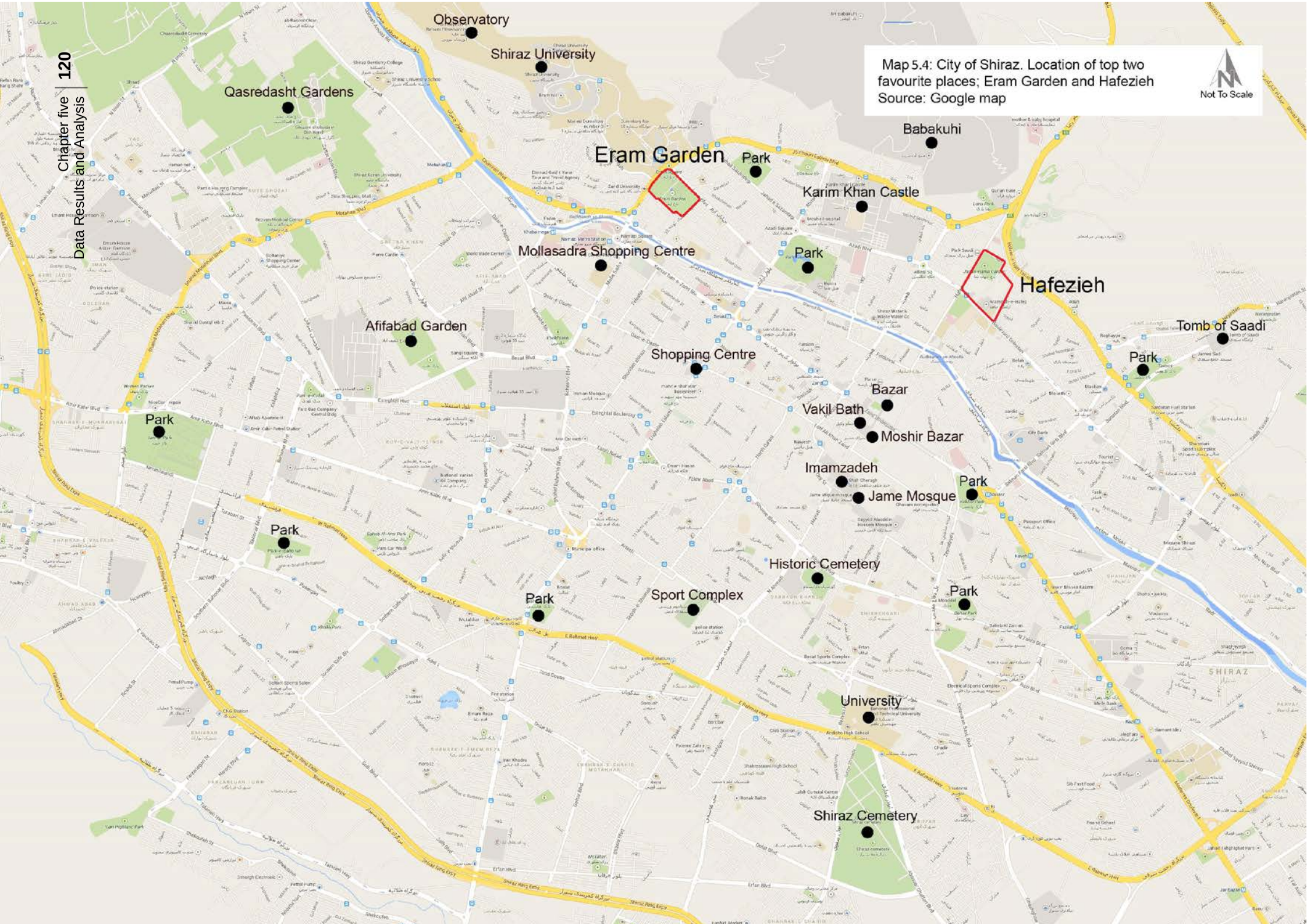
Not To Scale

City: **Shiraz (Map 5.4)** Selected places: **Hafezieh** and **Eram Garden**

Name	**Hafezieh (Hafez' Tomb)**
Location in the city	Northeast/urban area
Main Function	Mausoleum of Hafez, the 14th century Persian poet
Services	Visiting Hafez' tomb, seating areas, trees and shrubs
Established	1930 (originally c. 1400)
Governance	Shiraz Municipality, Iranian Cultural Heritage Organisation
Size	19,116 m^2
Boundary	Fenced, controlled entrance
Entrance fee	Yes
Opening time	7.00–17.00
Nearest centre	Hafeziew Stadium, Jahan Nama Garden, Melli Garden



Name	**Bagh-e Eram (Eram Garden)**
Location in the city	Northwest/urban
Main function	Botanic Garden, recreational
Services	Pools, water feature, seating area, trees and shrubs planting, museum
Established	1922 (original garden: 11th century)
Governance	Shiraz University
Size	110,380 m^2
Boundary	Fenced, controlled entrance
Entrance fee	Yes
Opening time	7.00–19.00
Nearest centre	Shiraz University, Shiraz Radio & TV



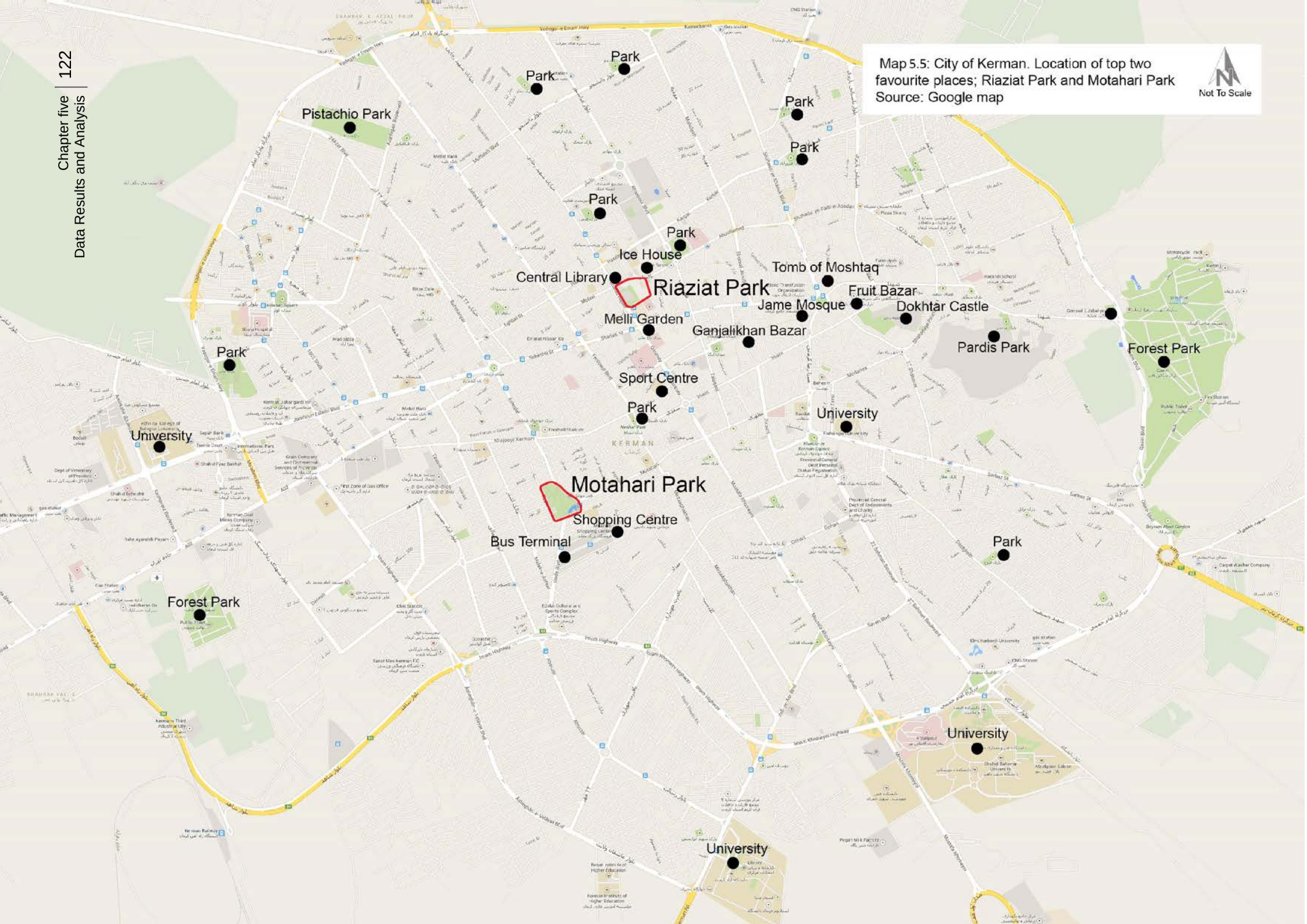
Map 5.4: City of Shiraz. Location of top two favourite places; Eram Garden and Hafezieh
Source: Google map

Not To Scale

City: **Kerman (Map 5.5)** Selected places: **Riaziat Park** and **Motahari Park**

Name	**Riaziat Park (Mathematics Park)**
Location in the city	Central/ residential, commercial area
Main function	Historic site, urban park
Services	Water feature, grassed area, trees and shrubs planting, seating area, free internet connection
Established	1921
Governance	Kerman Municipality
Size	20,000 m^2
Boundary	Permeable hedge, open entrance
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Yakhdan-e Moayedi (ice house), Salimi football stadium, Bagh-e Melli Park

Name	**Motahari Park**
Location in the city	South west/residential
Main function	Park, play, sport, picnic site
Services	Children's play equipment, lake, mini zoo, water feature, seating area, rowing boat, sculptures, coffee shop, restaurant, table tennis, outdoor gym, outdoor table tennis
Established	1978
Governance	Kerman Municipality
Size	11565 m^2
Boundary	Permeable fence, open entrance
Entrance fee	None
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	National bus terminal, university dormitories complex



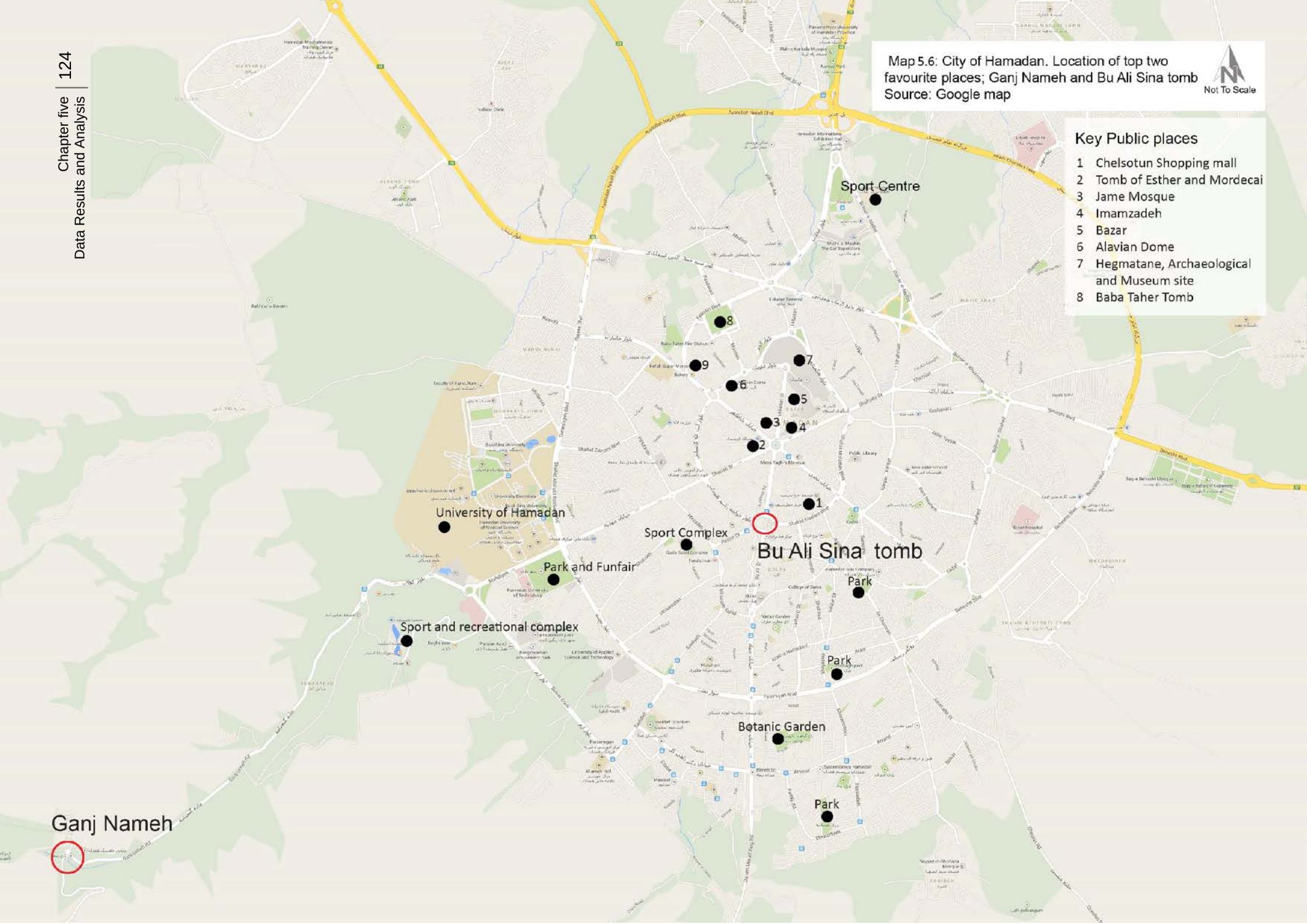
Map 5.5: City of Kerman. Location of top two favourite places; Riaziat Park and Motahari Park
Source: Google map

Not To Scale

City: **Hamadan (Map 5.6)** Selected places: **Ganj Nameh** and **Bu Ali Sina Tomb**

Name	**Ganj Nameh (Treasure epistle)**
Location in the city	South-east/urban fringe (Abbas Abad valley)
Main Function	Historic site with ancient inscription, park
Facilities	Historic site, picnic site, waterfall, rocky mountain walk, weekly market, city overview
Established	c. 500 BC
Governance	Hamadan Municipality, Iranian Cultural Heritage Organisation
Size	N/A
Boundary	Mountains, natural woodland
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Abbas Abad recreational complex

Name	**Aramgah-e Bu Ali Sina (Bu Ali Sina Tomb)**
Location in the city	Central/commercial, residential
Main function	Park, museum, mausoleum, visitor centre, library
Facilities	Museum, park, seating area, sculptures
Established	1951 (current structure)
Governance	Hamadan Municipality
Size	3,090 m^2
Boundary	Fenced, controlled gate
Entrance fee	Yes
Opening time	8.00–18.00
Nearest centre	Urban residential area, local retailers, cinema, Lux shopping centre



Map 5.6: City of Hamadan. Location of top two favourite places; Ganj Nameh and Bu Ali Sina tomb
Source: Google map

City: **Bandar-Abbas (Map 5.7)** Selected places: **Boostan-e Ghadir** and **Dowlat Park**

Name of the place	**Ghadir Park**
Location in the city	South-east/urban area
Main function	Park, picnic, play area, seafront
Facilities	Children's play equipment, grassed area, seating area, sculptures, coffee shop, restaurant, sport facility, drinking water, synthetic five-a-side pitch, outdoor gym
Established	2009
Governance	Bandar Abbas Municipality
Size	25,000 m^2
Boundary	Open
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Amir-Kabir University, Dowlat Park, Faculty of Nursing and Midwifery, Hijab swimming pool

Name of the place	**Dowlat Park**
Location in the city	South-east/urban area
Main function	Park, picnic site, seafront access
Facilities	Children's play equipment, seating area, sculptures, coffee shop, restaurant, sand football pitch, pergola for picnic
established	1995
Governance	Bandar Abbas Municipality
size	3200 m^2
Boundary	Open
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Amir-Kabir University, Faculty of Nursing and Midwifery, Hijab swimming pool, Ghadir Park

Map 5.7: City of Bandar Abbas. Location of top two favourite places; Ghadir Park and Dowlat Park
Source: Google map

Not To Scale

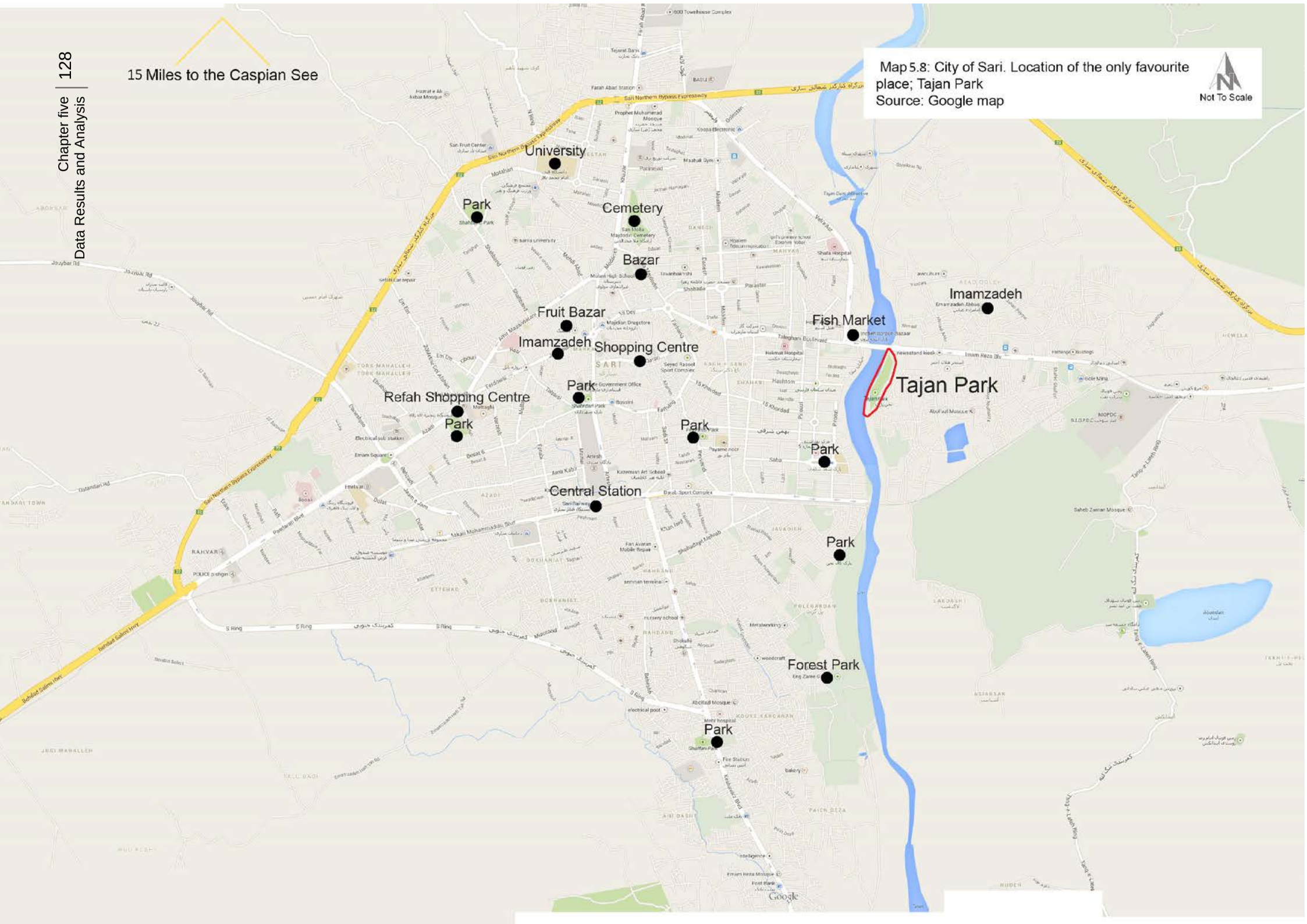
City: **Sari (Map 5.8)** Selected place: **Park-e Tajan**

Name of the place	**Tajan Park**
Location in the city	East/suburban area
Main function	Park, outdoor cinema
Facilities	Children's play equipment, grassed, seating area, sculptures, water feature, coffee shop, restaurant, skate park, river view, pergola, open amphitheatre with TV screen
Established	2008
Governance	Sari Municipality
Size	4000 m^2
Boundary	Open
Entrance fee	No
Opening time	24/7, controlled entrance
Nearest centre	Fish market, Tajan River, Tajan Bridge, residential

5.5.3 A public place classification

The favourite places identified by the participants ranged from a local pizza shop to an urban forest park. This diversity shows the spectrum of place identification in the public arena. While in recent years there has been an overemphasis on city centres as the main focus of public places, much of the current urban design literature is also based on certain types of public space – namely public open spaces – whilst not necessarily recognising the diversity of public places in cities (Worpole & Knox, 2008; Carmona, 2010a). Understanding the range of typologies of place in the public realm is particularly important as it has a major impact on the design and management of those places (Carmona, 2010).

As the literature review indicated, most of the existing public space/place classifications have no empirical evidence and usually are based on the authors' assumptions or on their limited experience of their locality. In contrast, the proposal of a new public place classification by this research is based on public perception and direct answers by participants (n=3856). Most of the current classifications have built their categorisation on various theoretical bases, ranging from 'social engagement', 'physical environment' to 'function of place' and 'management'.



Map 5.8: City of Sari. Location of the only favourite place; Tajan Park
Source: Google map

Dines & Cattell (2006) use a social approach to the classification of public places. Based on the degree of social engagement of place, they propose five categories: 'everyday places' such as neighbourhood, 'places of meaning', both positive and negative, 'social environments' that actively encourage social activities between users, 'places of retreat' which provide opportunity for people to be alone or to socialise with friends, and finally 'negative spaces': places for antisocial or threatening behaviour. Most of the other classifications have been based on function of place.

Carr *et al.* (1992, p.27) classify public spaces into 11 types, based on their functions as shown in Table 5.7. Krämer (1995) proposes three relevant criteria for a 'generic place classification'; 1) function of the places, 2) specificity of function, and 3) privacy. Based on these criteria he proposes six groups of place classification (Table 5.7).

More recently Carmona proposed a new typology of public spaces. He uses a 'management' approach to his classification. While he confirms the decline of places in the public realm, he suggests that many of the problems come from a lack of understanding the multiple dimensions of public places and 'how urban space is managed' (Carmona, 2010a, p.168). His classification, as illustrated in Table 5.7, covers a wide range of space types that can be found in any urban area.

Table 5.7: Three current type of classification of public places. Sources: as shown.

Functional types of public place (Carr *et al.*, 1992, p.79)	**Generic place names (Krämer, 1995, p.19)**	**Urban public space typology (Carmona, 2010, p.169)**
1. Waterfront 2. Public parks 3. Square and plazas 4. Memorials 5. Markets 6. Streets 7. Playgrounds 8. Community open spaces 9. Greenways and parkways 10. Atrium/indoor marketplaces 11. Found spaces/everyday spaces	1. Residential 2. Physical 3. Cultural 4. Socialising entertainment 5. Institution 6. Daily necessity	1. Natural/semi-natural 2. Civic 3. Public open 4. Movement 5. Service 6. Left over space 7. Undefined 8. Interchange 9. Public 'private' 10. Conspicuous 11. Internalised 'public' space 12. Retail 13. Third place 14. Private 'public' 15. Visible private 16. Interface 17. User selecting 18. Private open 19. External private 20. Internal private

In comparison to the above classification and as a result of this research, Table 5.8 presents a classification of places in the public arena of cities, as they were selected directly by the participants. One advantage of this classification is that it provides a hierarchy of place importance from people's point of view. Form a practical standpoint, this thesis believes that grouping the place types impede the better understanding of place function, while the knowledge about the importance of actual place types is more useful to concentrate on design and management of such places.

Table 5.8: New place classification based on the participants' selection, ranked by their popularity. 3856 participants had two selections each, 7613 is the total number of places. 99 were excluded as they had no second selection. Source: author.

Place type	**%**
Park, Recreational garden, Urban forest park, Mountain park (city boundary)	32.27
Historic monument, Historic neighbourhood, Historic building	17.73
High street, Avenue, Boulevard	15.92
Traditional Bazaar, Shopping centre, Specific shop	10.09
Maidan (Historic public square)	4.92
Waterfront (seaside, riverside)	3.24
Modern Neighbourhood	2.58
Mosque, Haram (Holy shrine), Imamzadeh (Holy shrine)	2.52
Playground, Funfair	2.01
Restaurant, Coffee shop, Fast-food shop	1.75
University, School, Library, Bookshop	1.65
Sports facility	1.20
Museum, Cinema, Music hall	1.10
Villages/countryside	0.51
Cemetery	0.50
Zoo	0.50
Iconic modern structure (landmark)	0.29
Place types with only one selection were discounted (0.31%)	98.88

It emerges that natural and semi-natural places including 'Parks', 'Recreational urban gardens', 'Urban forest parks' and 'Mountain parks', with 32.27%, are considerably more popular than other place types within the respondents' selections.

It is also significant to highlight the importance of 'Historic places' (monuments, neighbourhoods and buildings), with a popularity of 17.73%, sitting in second place. 'Avenue', 'Boulevard', 'Street' and 'Roundabout', with 15.92%, are the third most popular places. 'Bazaar' and 'Shopping centre' with 10.09% are the fourth most popular places amongst participants.

However, analysing the data from individual cities reveals that there is no consistency across all sample cities in their selection of place type, Figure 5.1 illustrates the top ten place types, selected in each study city. It shows 'Park' in Mashhad, Kerman, Bandar Abbas and Sari have the highest number of selections, while 'Historic monuments' have greater popularity in the cities of Isfahan, Shiraz and Hamadan. Also, in the cities of Isfahan, Tabriz, Kerman and Sari, 'Avenue' is one of the main favourite places.

These variations could be because of the cultural and geographical differences across the eight cities. During the data collection, while in the city of Tabriz in the north-west of Iran the temperature was –9°C at night, in the city of Bandar Abbas in the south, the temperature was +39°C. The availability of specific place types is also another possible reason, as for example in the city of Shiraz, there are more recreational gardens than parks available and open to the public.

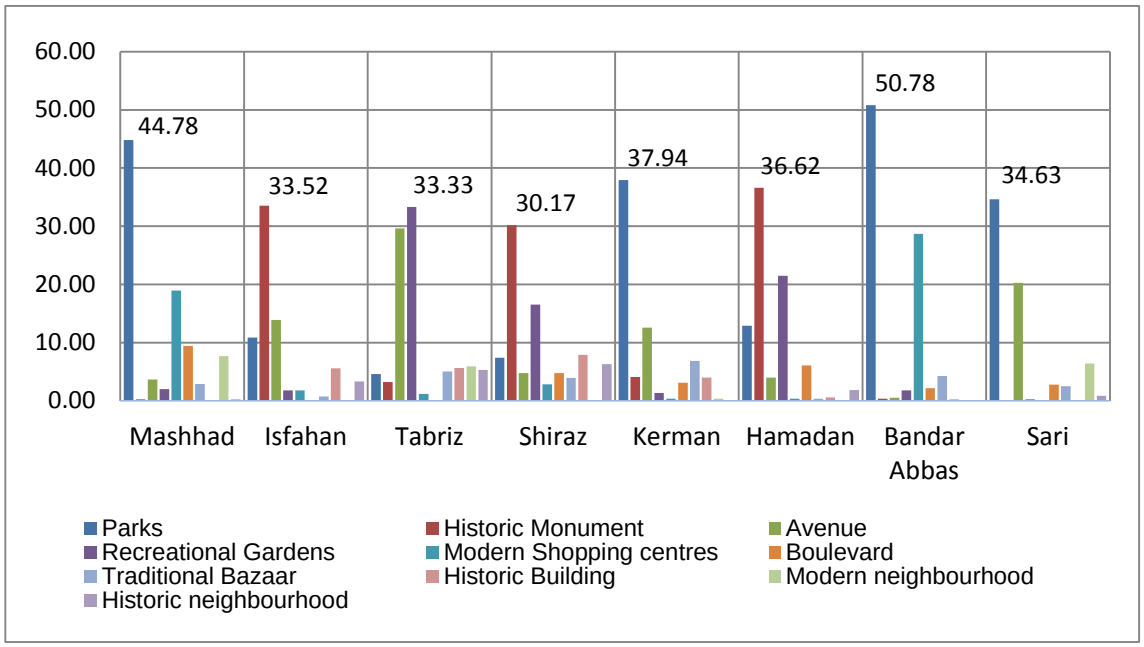


Figure 5.1: Top ten generic place names by popularity in each city (percentage)

5.5.4 Respondents' attitudes towards place

Another objective of the first stage of the data collection is to understand participants' attitudes towards their favourite places, and ultimately to identify key attributes of place from their perspectives. To achieve this, respondents were asked to explain their main reasons for each of their selection. Those reasons were collated and classified into groups. The data analysis employed elements of content and thematic investigation (Krippendorff, 2004) and used a thematic categorising approach (Dey, 2003), in which respondents' statements were grouped into categories that were felt to belong together. The analysis isolated the most frequently used terms by performing a word count on

recurring expressions. For example the aggregate number of statements recurred attributes such as ‘trees’, ‘air quality’, ‘greenery’, ‘landscape’, ‘animals’ and ‘birds’ were viewed as indicating respondents' attention to ‘Nature’ in the place, and were grouped together. Table 5.9 illustrates the groups of reasons: in total, 15424 replies comprised the responses from each participant. It is clear that the participants’ attitudes towards the attributes of place varied from ‘natural environment’ to ‘free car park’ and ‘martyrs graves’. However, the categorisation offers a system of ranking based on the number of responses.

Table 5.9: Significant attributes of place which were repeated more than 100 times by the participants to describe their favourite places. Figures shown are the aggregates of similar attributes, grouped into categories.

Aggregates of reasons for favourite place	No.	%
1. Natural environment, air quality, animal, birds	1420	9.2
2. Great views, vista, openness, feeling of freedom, Its high, overview (over the city)	1128	7.3
3. Serenity, puts me in a me good mood, atmosphere, good feelings, refreshes my mind, spiritual/healing atmosphere, therapeutic quality	1080	7.0
4. Calmness, quiet, relaxed	952	6.2
5. Play, sport, exercise, free gym equipment, ride on horses & carriages, jogging	792	5.1
6. Maintenance, clean and tidy, clean toilet	700	4.5
7. History, originality	628	4.1
8. It is not the same as other places for me, it is the best place in the city, that’s the only place I know	596	3.9
9. For shopping, to buy handicrafts, I like the traditional shops, window shopping, lots of facilities, events, celebrations, best place to buy	592	3.8
10. Great architecture, nice sculptures, grandeur	500	3.2
11. It is close to the bazaar, shopping, library, university	484	3.1
12. Good for walks, walks with my family, walk through here	484	3.1
13. Good memories, remind me good time of the past, memory of the last regime (Shah)	476	3.1
14. I feel free, no moral police, I do whatever I want, no rules, there is no time limit to stay here, I am in control, it’s always open, I can listen to music, I can sing	444	2.9
15. I have my own corner, I like the side of the pond, where I always go	372	2.4
16. My knowledge about the place, my native place	368	2.4
17. Easily accessible, I can go there by bus	360	2.3
18. Water, water features, pond, fountain	352	2.3
19. Safe, socially healthy place, safe place for family, no hooligans	340	2.2
20. Cultural heritage, national identity, national pride	328	2.1
21. Meeting the opposite sex, meeting friends, meeting place	316	2.0
22. To see other people, to see something different, to watch seasonal change, watch cars	292	1.9
23. For Hafez himself, fortune telling, auspices	288	1.9
24. It is always busy, lots to do	268	1.7
25. Close to my home, near my work place	252	1.6
26. Sheltered, good seats, pergola, good for picnic, I can sit on grass	224	1.5
27. I just like it, I just enjoy it, feel happy here	212	1.4
28. To eat, cafe, good food, BBQ, best ice-cream, good restaurant	180	1.2
29. Nice at night	140	0.9
30. Good place for studying	124	0.8
31. Free parking, plenty car parks available	124	0.8
Total	**14816**	**95.9**

The rest of the less significant reasons are listed in Table 5.10, although the importance of the other reasons should not be ignored in the development of the framework; but interestingly, the more significant reasons (above 0.5%) make up 95.9% of the total responses that show the overall attitude of the participants to their favourite places in the public arena of their cities.

Table 5.10: Less significant attributes of place which were mentioned less than 100 times by the participants when describing their favourite places.

Aggregates of reasons for favourite place	No.	%
32. High class area of the city, chic, luxurious, prestigious, best location in the city	92	0.4
33. Good smell (food, vegetation, flowers)	32	0.2
34. Far from my home	20	0.1
35. Museum, exhibitions	20	0.1
36. Martyr's grave	20	0.1
37. I can drink alcohol	16	0.1
38. Good people/gentry	12	0.1
	212	**1.1**

These attributes cover 1.1% of the responses; adding this to 95.9%, the result shows a 3% shortfall. This shortfall is due to those participants from the city of Sari who did not answer the question. As described in Chapter Four, 99 respondents in Sari unexpectedly refused to choose any favourite places in their city. They strongly believed the choices of public places were limited and there was 'nowhere' in their city which was their favourite. This phenomenon might be because of the location of Sari; the city is located in the north of Iran, with Gilak and Turkmen ethnic majorities. The city is in the vicinity of some of the largest natural forests and the Caspian Sea, and because of this the people of Sari generally spend their leisure time outside the city. This could be an idea for further research.

5.5.5 Place in the public arena or public space?

Although the research decided not to use the term 'public space' and preferred to give the participants freedom of choice, most of the place choices fall into public spaces of the cities, mainly 'parks and other green open spaces' (32.27%). People view 'places in the public arena' and 'public space' as synonymous terms and suggest that they mean more or less the same. These places cover a whole range of passive (calm, relaxed, watching) and active recreation (play, sport, exercise), in which the respondents are usually engaged during their free time. It should be emphasised here that some of the participants were uneasy about defining the details of their leisure and recreation activities, and most of the responses are generic (see Table 5.9).

5.5.5.1 Popular attributes

The top ten attributes included: ‘natural environment’, ‘views and vista’, ‘atmosphere’, ‘relaxation’, ‘physical activities’, ‘cleanness’, ‘historical significance’, ‘emotional descriptions’ , ’functions’ and ‘architectural design’. These appear to be highly significant as they cover more than 50% of the responses. Participants appreciated environmental attributes as their main reasons of favourite places. In total, ‘natural environments’ (including ‘water’), with an 11.5% response, are highly popular as the key determinant for the selection of a favourite place. This is not, however, a surprise: the literature suggests that the quality of natural environments is amongst the most important attributes that generate preferences in terms of choice of place and consequently place satisfaction. ‘Nature’ here refers to the natural environments that are predominant over the built structure of the urban spaces. In this context, ‘maintenance and cleanliness’ are also other attributes that appeared important for the respondents, highlighting the importance of management in public spaces. Amongst environmental attributes, ‘water, water features and water fountains’ was highly regarded by the participants as an important factor.

Figure 5.2: Mellat Park, Mashhad, Iran. Source: author

Figure 5.2: Ghadir Park, Bandar Abbas, Iran. Source: author

As explained in Chapter Two, the experience of places in the public arena is also an aesthetic one. This is also emphasised by the respondents, showing the positive effect of the ‘views and vista’ and ‘architectural design’ and the image that these present. The historic value of favourite places is also recognised by the participants as a key attribute.

It is interesting that none of the participants paid attention to the details of their favourite places such as paving, building material or specific form or colour; this is more interesting when the ‘atmosphere’ of the place is one of the main attributes for them. ‘Atmosphere’ could be associated with the overall impression of a place, and perhaps provides satisfaction or psychological comfort. The notion of ‘atmosphere’ seems less appreciated

by this research as it was not highlighted by the literature; hence it is not clear what constructs such a complex notion. Therefore, further investigation is suggested.

5.5.6 Place as attitude, a state of mind, state of being

It appears that participants interpret ‘place’ as a product of subjective attitudes, and the number of responses mentioning ‘feelings, emotions and experiences’ are considerably higher than those simply mentioning activity. In general, participants were satisfied with their favourite places as reflected in their feelings about the qualities of that place and its overall appearance. A comparison of the participants’ feelings as reflected in the responses to the open questions demonstrate psychosocial elements such as: feeling of freedom, serenity, gives me good mood, the atmosphere, good feeling, refreshes my mind, spiritual/healing atmosphere, therapy quality, calmness, quiet, relaxed, good memories, remind me good time of the past, memory of the last regime.

To the participants in this research, ‘place’ has positive connotations, and they believe that ‘place’ in the public domain is an essential dimension of their existence. Therefore ‘place’ in their mind is not a by-product of time or space, nor purely a set of activities. People want to have freedom to treat themselves in psychologically satisfactory ways, and what they mean by that is rather a subjective and inner experience. In this context ‘place’ can be understood, as a mental and spiritual attitude (‘spiritual, healing and therapy qualities, history and memory); it is not only the result of spatial and external attributes and surely not only something that people experience only in their spare time. It is in fact a state of mind.

5.5.7 A possible categorisation: social, spatial, symbolic

Responding to the research objectives, and according to the conceptual basis of the research, further categorisation of the attributes, based on the three dimensions of social, spatial and symbolic, were utilised to explore the interrelationship between the attributes. Therefore, the attributes were inductively grouped into three related themes.

The majority of respondents (53.1%) attach high importance to provision of ‘spatial’ qualities of places, and rank this as first in the order of significance table (Table 5.11). The ‘symbolic’ category (Table 5.12) is ranked the second most important, scoring 26.2% of the respondents, and ‘social’ attributes of place, with 20.4%, rank as the third most important group (Table 5.13).

Table 5.11: Attributes within the spatial category

Attributes in the spatial category	
Natural environment, air quality, animals, birds	9.2
Great views, vista, openness, feeling of freedom, high, overview (over the city)	7.3
Play, sport, exercise, free gym equipment, ride on horses & carriages, jogging	5.1
Maintenance, clean and tidy, clean toilet	4.5
Great architecture, nice sculptures, grandeur	3.2
It is close to the bazaar, shopping, library, university	3.1
Good for walks, walks with my family, walk through here	3.1
I have my own corner, I like the side of the pond, where I always go	2.4
Easily accessible, I can go there by bus	2.3
Water, water features, pond, fountain	2.3
Close to my home, near my work place	1.6
Sheltered, good seats, pergola, good for picnic, I can sit on grass	1.5
To eat, cafe, good food, BBQ, best ice-cream, good restaurant	1.2
Nice at night	0.9
Good place for studying	0.8
Free parking, plenty of car parks available	0.8
	53.1

Table 5.12: Attributes within the symbolic category

Attributes in the symbolic category	**%**
Serenity, puts me in a good mood, the atmosphere, good feeling, refreshes my mind, spiritual/healing atmosphere, therapy quality	7.0
Calmness, quiet, relaxed	6.2
History, originality	4.1
It is not the same as other place for me, it is the best place in the city, that's the only place I know	3.9
Good memories, remind me good times of the past, memory of the last regime (Shah)	3.1
For Hafez himself, fortune telling, auspicious	1.9
	26.2

Table 5.13: Attributes within the social category

Attributes in the social category	
For shopping, to buy handicrafts, I like the traditional shops, window shopping, lots of facilities, events, celebrations, best place to buy	3.8
I feel free, no moral police, I do whatever I want, no rules, there is no time limit to stay here, I am in control, it's always open, I can listen to music, I can sing	2.9
My knowledge about the place, my native place	2.4
Safe, socially healthy place, safe place for family, no hooligans	2.2
Cultural heritage, national identity, national pride	2.1
Meeting the opposite sex, meeting finds, meeting place	2.0
To see other people, to see something different, to watch seasonal change, watch cars	1.9
It is always busy, lots to do	1.7
I just like it, I just enjoy it, feel happy here	1.4
	20.4

The importance of physical characteristics of place can be interpreted as evaluating the performance of place, as many researchers have argued, is (1) carried out through careful visual observation of the natural environment; (2) demonstrates the relationship between environmental quality and design; and (3) shows the conflict between social and symbolic attributes. While many social attributes are culturally dependent, the realisation of them will be through a symbolic interpretation.

Favourite places are conceived as the exterior space of activities and function, which acts as a bridge between social and symbolic attributes, reinforcing the social relationship of place and facilitating some of the daily activities of people. People use public places in various ways for their benefit to the extent that such opportunity is available (see Chapter Two). Although the social, spatial and symbolic categorisation is useful in order to understand the degree of importance of each category, nevertheless, it can be argued that many of the attributes belong to multiple categories and cannot be contained in a single category.

Chapter Three outlined a conceptual and theoretical underpinning of place in the public arena of cities with a multitude of dimensions as well as 45 main attributes of place. This picture, so far, is acknowledged by the participants across the survey cities; in the next stage of the survey, the research framework will also be empirically examined to provide further validation for the findings from the first stage. The results from both stages will be triangulated to enrich the framework with participants' attitude towards the key attributes of place.

5.6 Stage two: data results and analysis

Following the identification of two favourite places in each sample city, and in an attempt to empirically examine the theoretical framework of the research, a 45-item survey questionnaire was designed and administered. In total, data was collected from 4045 participants (2047 males, 1998 females) with an average age of 29.26 years. The minimum age of the participants was 18 and the highest age of those interviewed was 86. Responses were on a five-point Likert scale with the following meaning: 5- Strongly agree, 4- Agree, 3- Neutral, 2- Disagree, and 1- Strongly disagree. Table 5.14 is the schedule of the survey and the number of respondents in the two favourite places in each sample city.

Table 5.14: Survey administered to 4045 visitors of the two most favourite places in each sample city, which was the result of the first survey.

Study cities	Two favourite places	Participants	Study cities	Two favourite places	Participants
Mashhad	Kuhe Sangi	324	**Kerman**	Motahari Park	211
	Mellat Park	324		Riaziat Park	212
Isfahan	Imam Square	249	**Hamadan**	Ganj Nameh	247
	Pole Khaju	249		Bu Ali Sina Tomb	246
Tabriz	Valiasr Avenue	263	**Bandar Abbas**	Boostan-e Ghadir	220
	Shah Goli	260		Dowlat Park	219
Shiraz	Hafezieh	311	**Sari**	Tajan Park	398
	Eram Garden	312		Nowhere	99

The key in the development of this stage was to achieve the research objective to 'evaluate the main attributes of place in different cultural settings'. In order to minimise researcher interference while the participants were answering the questionnaires, by consulting a number of recent empirical studies (section 4.9.1.2) and through the pilot study, the attributes were transformed into short statements, as illustrated in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Survey statements were used to evaluate the participants' attitudes towards the main attributes of place.

Attribute of place	Questionnaire's statement
1. Accessibility	Easily accessible
2. Adaptability	It has multiple uses
3. Appropriation	I can have my own spot
4. Childhood memory	Good childhood memory
5. Cleanliness	It is clean and tidy
6. Continuity (Personal history)	I grew up here
7. Control	I am in control
8. Design quality	Good design (architecture and landscape)
9. Discovery	Always find something new here
10. Emotional dependence	I am very attached to this place
11. Everyday routine	I come here every day
12. Familiarity	I know it very well
13. Feeling safe	I feel safe at all time
14. Freedom of action	I am free to stay and do my things
15. Functional dependence	It is best place for what I like to do
16. Historical significance	Part of the local history
17. Identity by place	I feel like here is part of my identity
18. Identity of place	It is a landmark for the city
19. Image and appearance	Good image and appearance
20. Legibility	I can easily find my way (without getting lost)
21. Meaning	It has a special meaning to me
22. Meeting place	Good for meeting friends
23. Nature	I am close to nature
24. Novelty (newness)	It is new and modern
25. Participation and involvement	I feel I am involved in the improvement of here
26. Past experiences	Past experience
27. Personalisation	I can be by myself (without disturbance)
28. Physical activity	Play, exercise and leisure activities
29. Physical comfort	I feel comfortable (seats etc.)
30. Physical distance (close)	Close to where I live
31. Physical distance (far)	Far from where I live
32. Physical protection	Protected from traffic, wind, cold, rain
33. Position in social order	I feel I am a different person here
34. Presence of others	To be around other people
35. Presence of self	I can be seen by others
36. Psychosocial comfort	I feel mentally calm
37. Relaxation	I feel relaxed
38. Restorative effect	I feel restored and revived
39. Satisfaction	I enjoy and feel happy
40. Social accessibility	Good location in the city
41. Views and vistas	Good views
42. Vitality	It is busy and full of life
43. Walkability	I can walk around
44. Watching	I can see others
45. Wider context	For surrounding shops and streets

A five-point Likert scale questionnaire was designed (as described in Chapter Four), then tested and altered through the pilot study (section 4.9.1). The results are presented as follows.

5.6.1 Preliminary analysis, graphical description of the results

In order to view the situation as a whole and depict problem areas, a preliminary graphic analysis was found to be useful (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). This creates a direct sense of proportion and makes quantitative and sophisticated data easier to understand. Such a graphic analysis was conducted using the means of the ratings for each attribute. The bar charts, as produced by SPSS, illustrate the general trend of the responses to the statements in the survey. In order to analyse the graphic descriptions, a simple method of a nominal curve was employed (Bryman & Cramer, 2009). While the graphic descriptions show the results from individual favourite places, the emphasis is on common and general trends across all participants, as the key objective of the research is to identify the commonalities across responses. This technique therefore reveals the general agreement across the samples. Figure 5.3 illustrates three possible norms to show the general trend of the responses, and represents the degrees of significance, to describe the typical patterns of the responses.

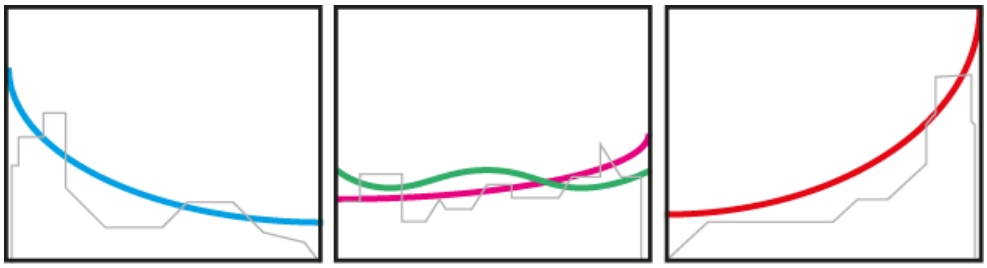
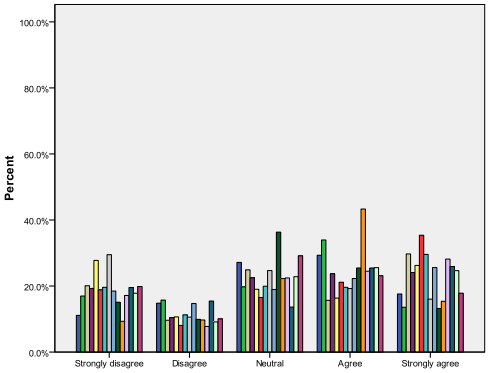


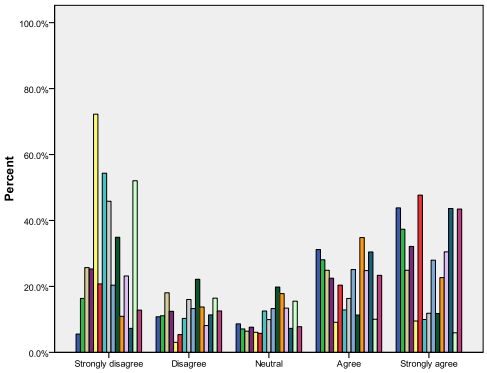
Figure 5.3: Nominal curve analysis shows the general agreement across the samples, towards their responses to the main attributes of place. Source: author

Depending on the positive or negative skew, responses were categorised into three groups of ‘highly significant’, ‘fairly significant’ and ‘not significant’. This preliminary analysis provides the research with a group of attributes which are highly significant across the responses from all cities and cultures. Therefore it can be argued that there is a high possibility that those attributes categorised as ‘highly significant’ are the most commonly important across the responses.

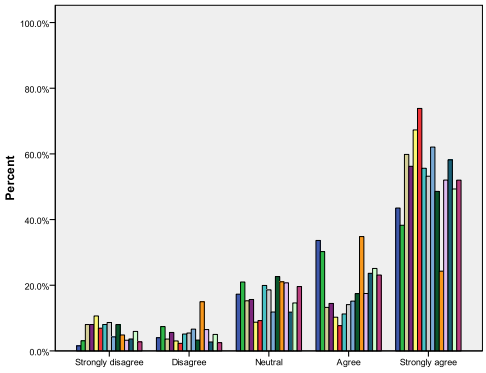
In the following, 45 graphic descriptions of the attributes are presented, with their degree of significance.



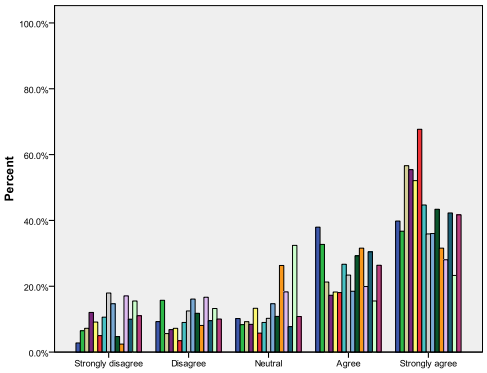
1. Accessibility (Easily accessible)
- Fairly Significant



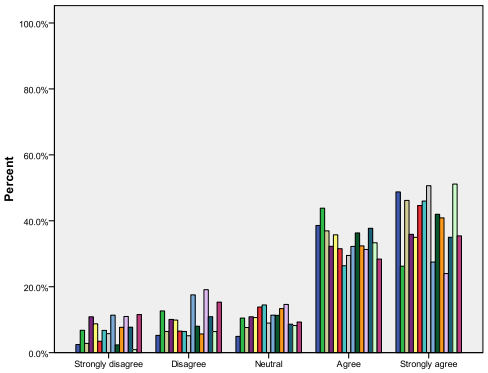
2. Adaptability (It has multiple uses)
- Not Significant



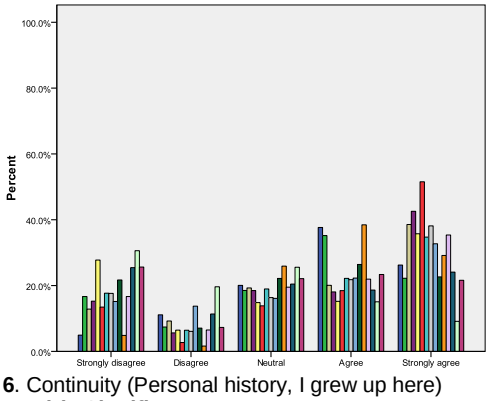
3. Appropriation (I can have my own spot)
- Highly Significant



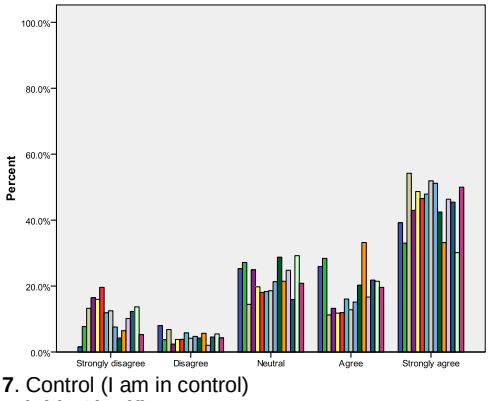
4. Childhood memory (good childhood memory)
- Highly Significant



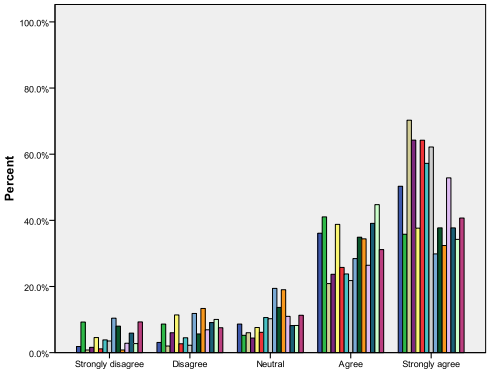
5. Cleanliness (It is clean and tidy)
- Highly Significant



6. Continuity (Personal history, I grew up here)
- Fairly Significant

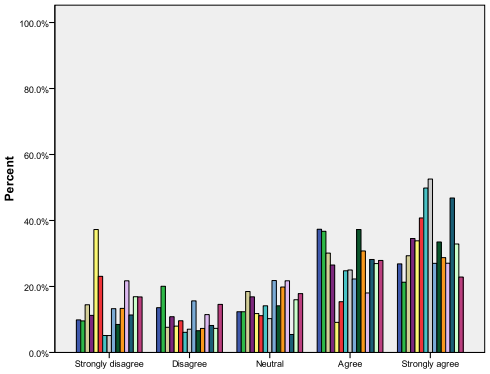


7. Control (I am in control)
- Highly Significant



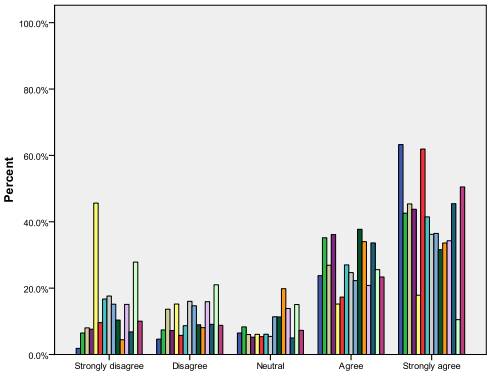
8. Design quality (Good design (architecture and landscape))

- Highly Significant



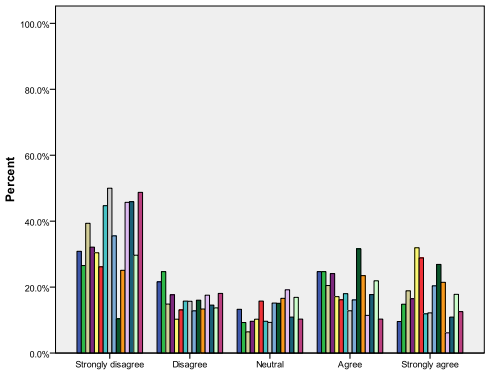
9. Discovery (always find something new here)

- Fairly Significant



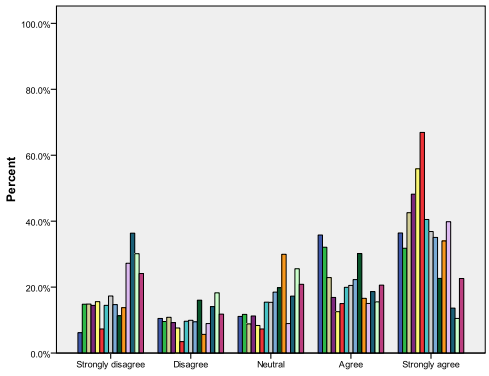
10. Emotional dependence (I am very attached to this place)

- **Highly Significant**



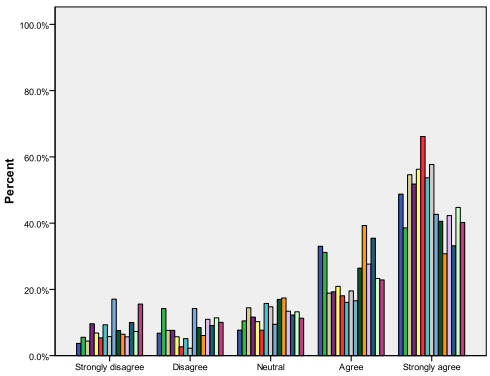
11. Everyday routine (I come here every day)

- Not Significant



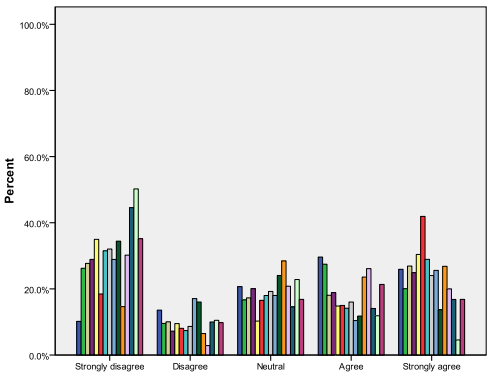
12. Familiarity (I know it very well)

- Fairly Significant



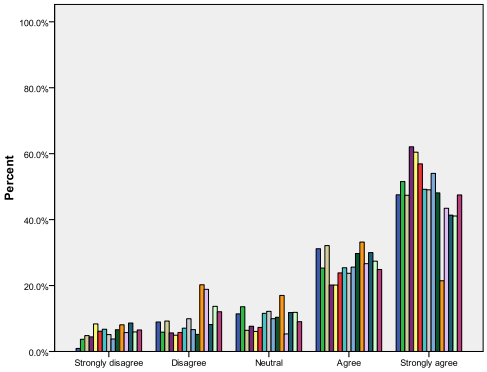
13. Feeling safe (I feel safe at all time)

- Highly Significant

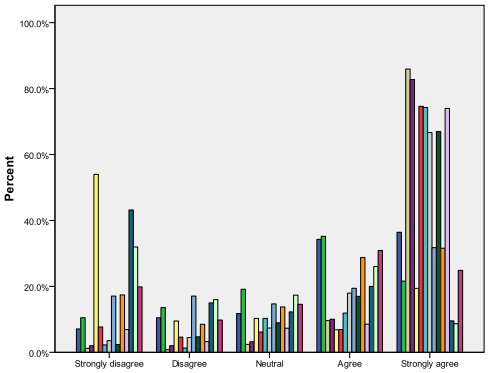


14. Freedom of action (am free to stay and do my things)

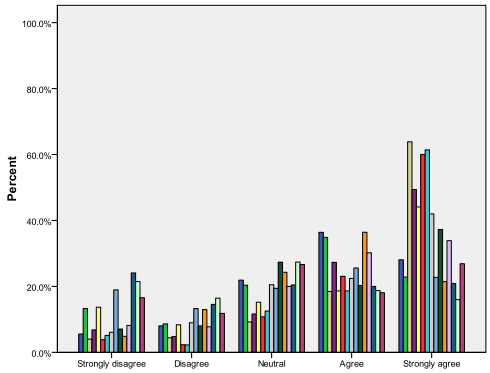
- Not Significant



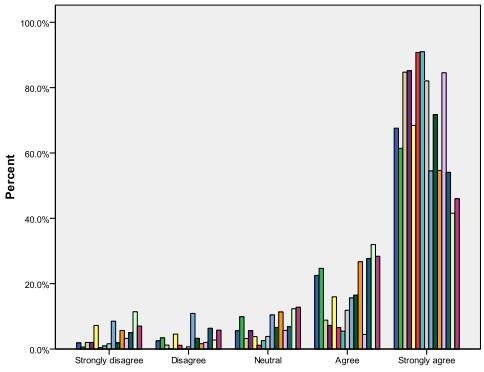
15. Functional dependence (Best place for what I like to do)
- Highly Significant



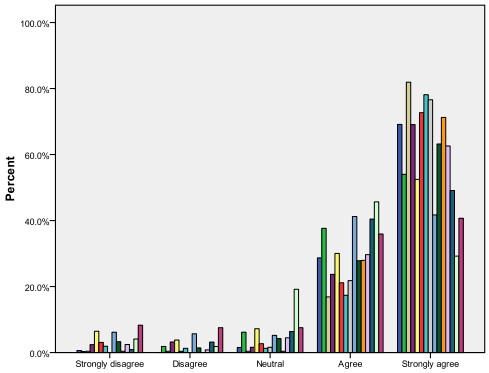
16. Historical significance (part of the local history)
- Highly Significant



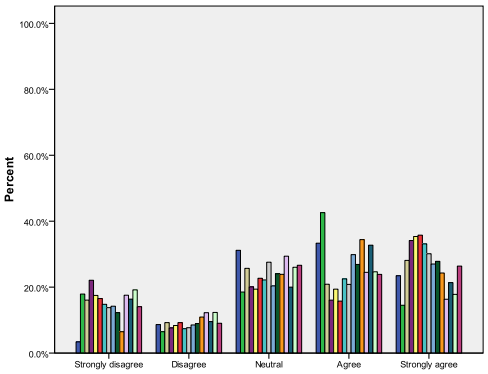
17. Identity by place (I feel like here is part of my identity)
- Highly Significant



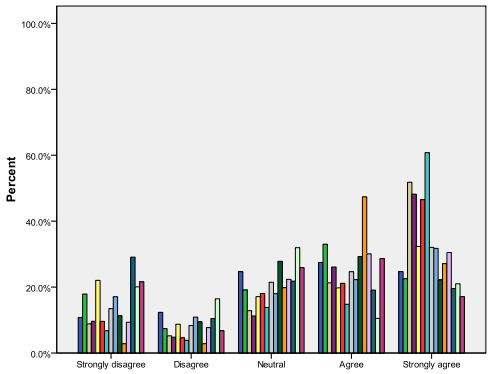
18. Identity of place (it is a landmark for the city)
- Highly Significant



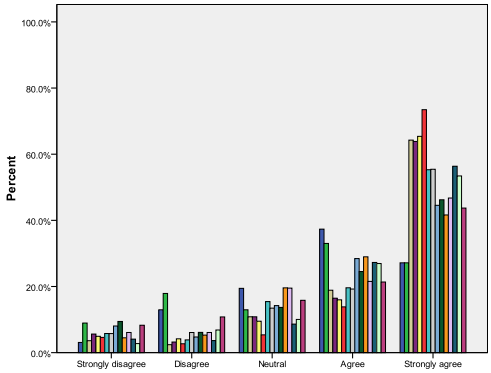
19. Image and appearance (Good Image and appearance)
- Highly Significant



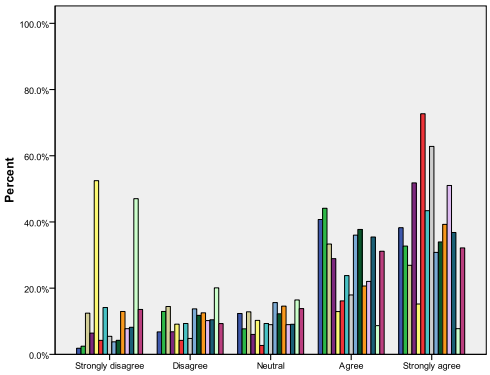
20. Legibility (I can easily find my way without getting lost)
- Fairly Significant



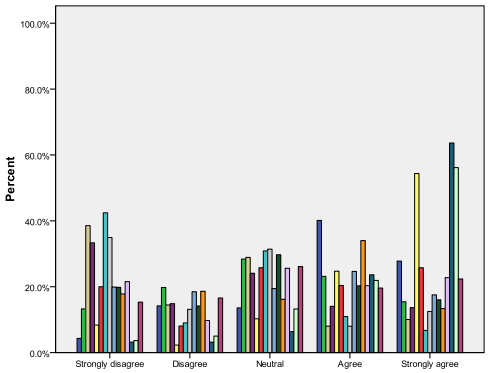
21. Meaning (It has a special meaning to me)
- Fairly Significant



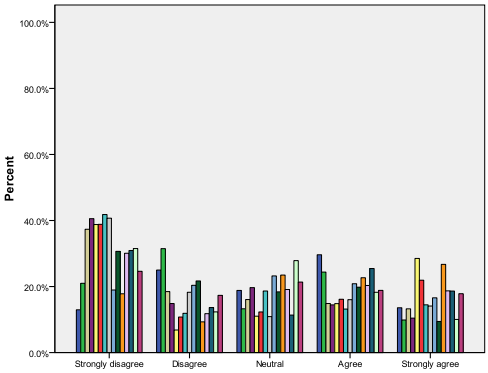
22. Meeting place (good for meeting friends)
- Highly Significant



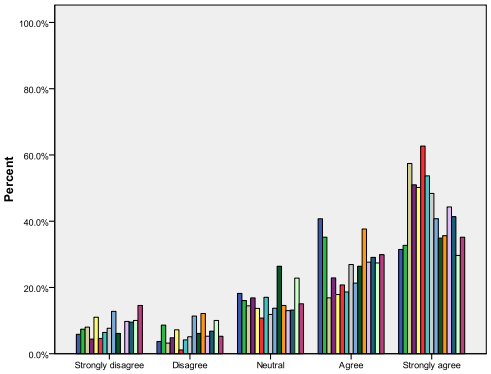
23. Nature (I am close to nature)
- Highly Significant



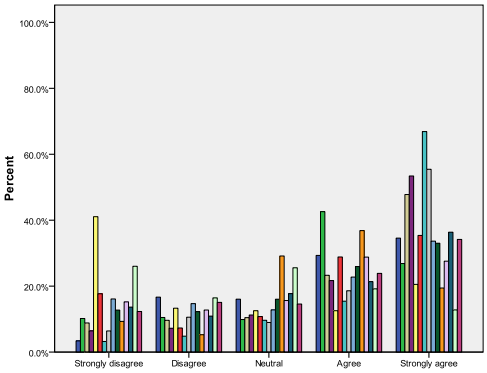
24. Novelty/newness (It is new and modern)
- Fairly Significant



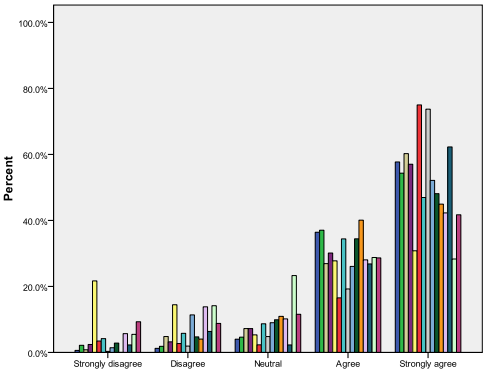
25. Participation and involvement (I feel involved in this place's improvement)
- Not Significant



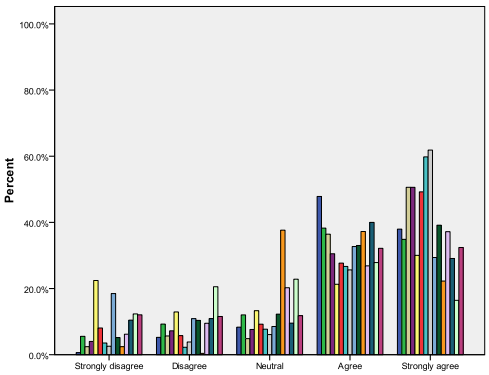
26. Past experiences (Past experience)
- Highly Significant



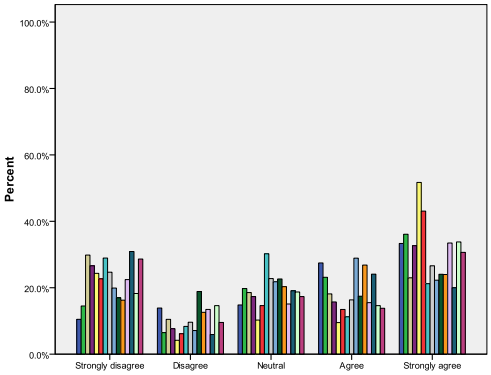
27. Personalisation (I can be by myself, no disturbance)
- Highly Significant



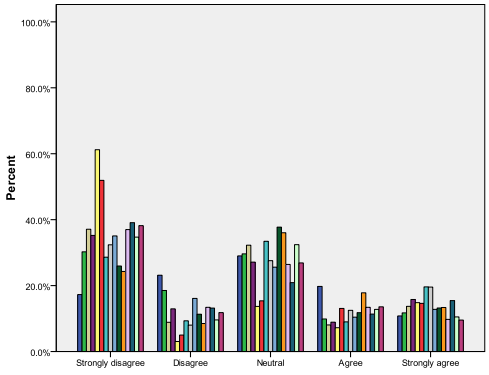
28. Physical Activity (Play, exercise and leisure activities)
- Highly Significant



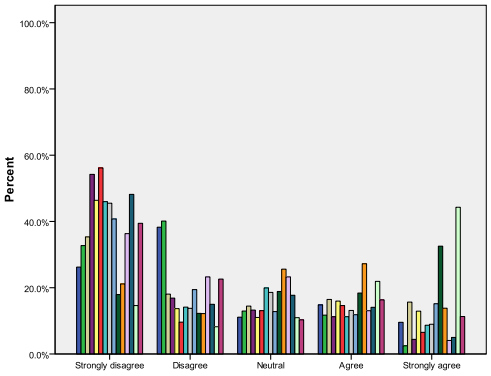
29. Physical comfort (feel comfortable (seats etc.)
- Highly Significant



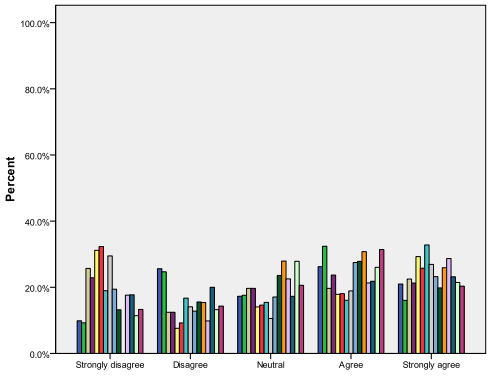
30. Physical distance (close to where I live)
- Fairly Significant



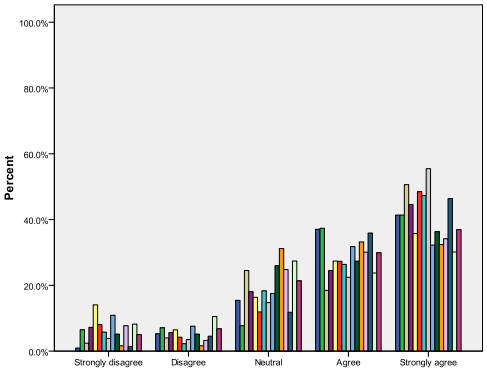
31. Physical distance (far from where I live)
- Not Significant



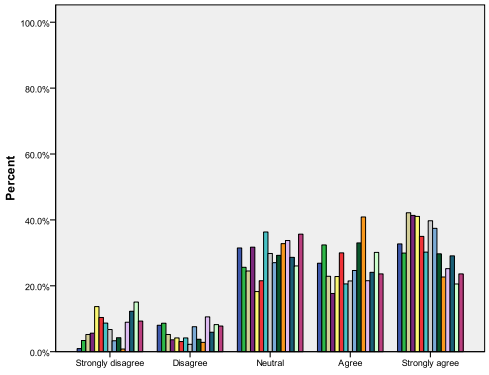
32. Physical protection (protected from wind, cold, rain)
- Not Significant



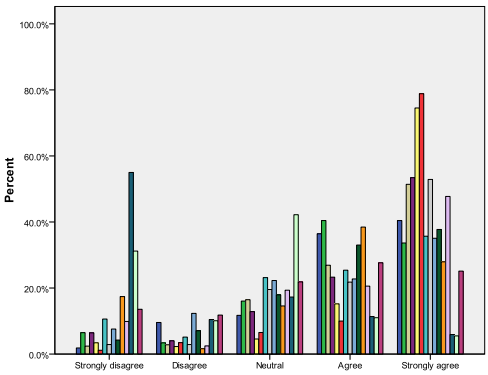
33. Position in social order (I feel I am a different person here)
- Fairly Significant



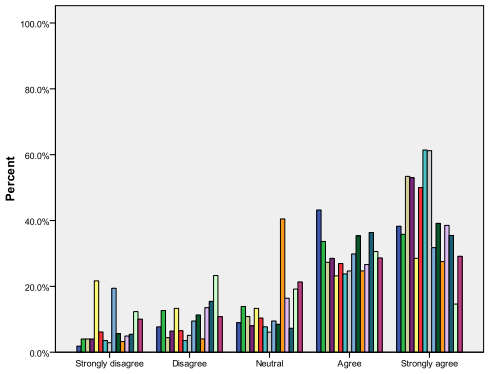
34. Presence of others (to be around other people)
- Highly Significant



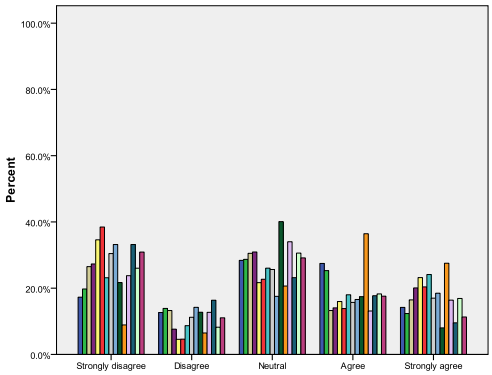
35. Presence of self (I can be seen by others)
- Highly Significant



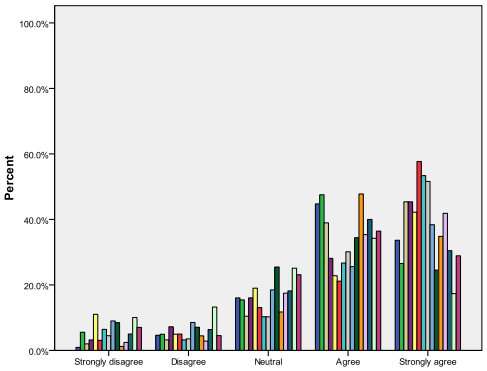
36. Psychosocial comfort (I feel mentally calm)
- Highly Significant



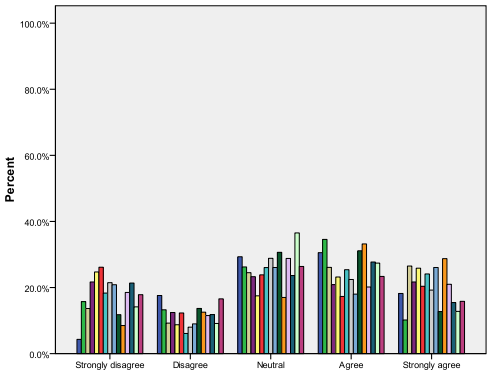
37. Relaxation (I feel relaxed)
- Highly Significant



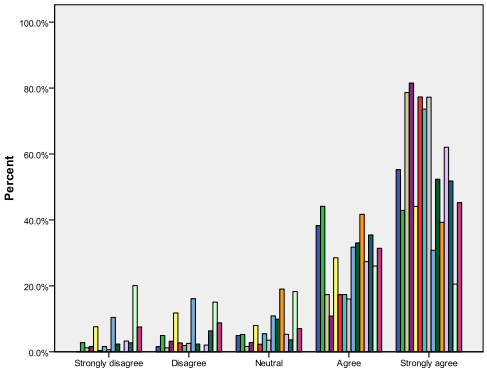
38. Restorative effect (I feel restored and revived)
- Fairly Significant



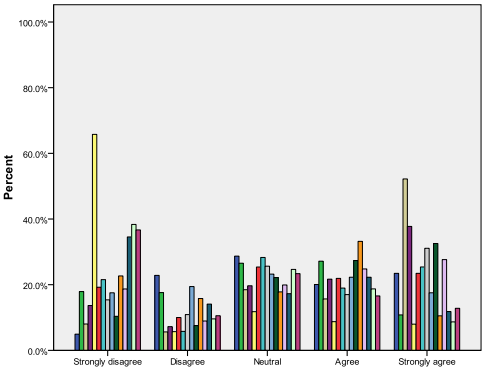
39. Satisfaction (I enjoy the place and feel happy)
- Highly Significant



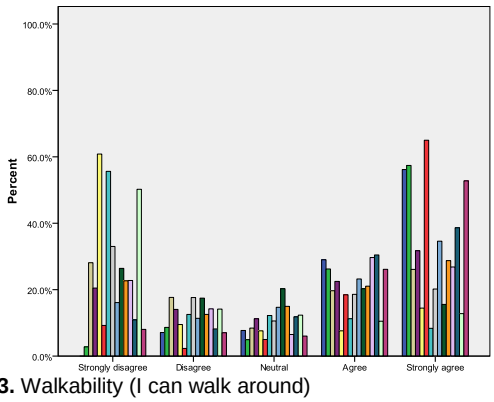
40. Social accessibility (Good location in the city)
- Fairly Significant



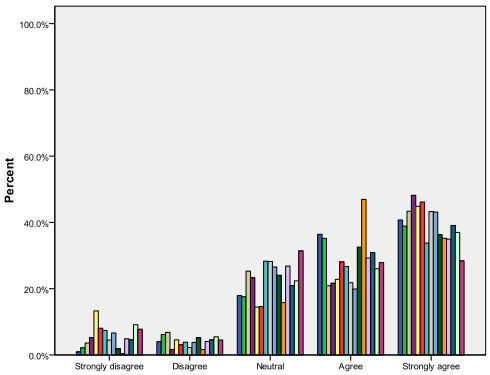
41. Views and vistas (Good views)
- Highly Significant



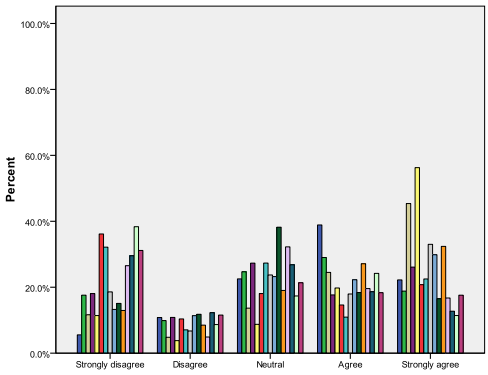
42. Vitality (it is busy and full of life)
- Fairly Significant



43. Walkability (I can walk around)
- Fairly Significant



44. Watching (I can see others)
- Highly Significant



45. Wider context (for surrounding shops and streets)
- Fairly Significant

Figure 5.4: Graphic analysis of 45 attributes of place as rated by the respondents in Iranian cities

5.6.2 Significant attributes

The above results are summarised in three groups as presented in Table 5.16. The results are particularly important, as they categorise the attributes into three major groups with their degree of importance.

These attributes represent the general attitude of the participants towards their favourite place. However, further investigation is needed to explore the hierarchical relationships of the main attributes; also, this kind of graphic analysis cannot be accurately utilised without further validation or triangulation. As discussed in Chapter Four, following the final analysis of the second stage, the results will be triangulated with the findings of the first stage.

Table 5.16: Main attributes of place as the components of the theoretical framework of the research (not in hierarchical order), grouped by their degree of significance as rated by the participants through the second survey.

State-ment No.	Main Attribute	Significance
3.	Appropriation (I can have my own spot)	Highly Significant
4.	Emotional dependence (I am very attached to this place)	Highly Significant
5.	Functional dependence (It is best place for what I like to do)	Highly Significant
6.	Childhood memory (good childhood memory)	Highly Significant
7.	Cleanness (It is clean and tidy)	Highly Significant
8.	Control (I am in control)	Highly Significant
9.	Design quality (good design (architecture and landscape))	Highly Significant
14.	Feeling safe (I feel safe at all time)	Highly Significant
16.	Historical significance (part of the local history)	Highly Significant
17.	Identity by place (I feel like here is part of my identity)	Highly Significant
18.	Identity of place (It is a landmark for the city)	Highly Significant
19.	Image and appearance (good image and appearance)	Highly Significant
22.	Meeting place (good for meeting friends)	Highly Significant
23.	Nature (I am close to nature)	Highly Significant
26.	Past experiences (past experience)	Highly Significant
27.	Personalisation (I can be by myself (without disturbance))	Highly Significant
28.	Physical Activity (play, exercise and leisure activities)	Highly Significant
34.	Presence of others (to be around other people)	Highly Significant
35.	Presence of self (I can be seen by others)	Highly Significant
36.	Psychosocial comfort (I feel mentally calm)	Highly Significant
37.	Relaxation (I feel relaxed)	Highly Significant
39.	Satisfaction (I enjoy the place and feel happy)	Highly Significant
42.	Views and vistas (good views)	Highly Significant
45.	Watching (I can see others)	Highly Significant
1.	Accessibility (easily accessible)	Fairly Significant
10.	Continuity (personal history) (I grew up here)	Fairly Significant
11.	Wider context (for surrounding shops and streets)	Fairly Significant
13.	Familiarity (I know it very well)	Fairly Significant
21.	Meaning (It has a special meaning to me)	Fairly Significant
24.	Novelty (newness) (It is new and modern)	Fairly Significant
29.	Physical comfort (sitting) (I feel comfortable (seats etc.))	Fairly Significant
30.	Physical distance (close) (close to where I live)	Fairly Significant
33.	Position in social order (I feel I am a different person here)	Fairly Significant
38.	Restorative effect (I feel restored and revived)	Fairly Significant
40.	Social accessibility (good location in the city)	Fairly Significant
41.	Surprise, discovery (always find something new here)	Fairly Significant
43.	Vitality (it is busy and full of life)	Fairly Significant
44.	Walkability (I can walk around)	Fairly Significant
2.	Adaptability (it has multiple uses)	Not Significant
12.	Every day routine (I come here every day)	Not Significant
15.	Freedom of action (I am free to stay and do my things)	Not Significant
20.	Legibility (I can easily find my way (without getting lost))	Not Significant
25.	Participation (I feel I am involved in the improvement of here)	Not Significant
31.	Physical distance (far) (far from where I live)	Not Significant
32.	Physical protection (protected from traffic, wind, cold, rain)	Not Significant

5.6.3 Comparison of the two results

A number of key attributes of place from participants' perspectives were identified at the first stage of the data collection (Tables 5.9 and 5.10). A comparison between the two results, as illustrated in Table 5.17, reveals a strong association between both groups of attributes: those gathered directly from the participants and the theoretical framework. This comparison reveals that most of the main attributes from the research framework have been confirmed by the participants as the key reasons for the selection of their favourite places.

Table 5.17: Comparison between the results from first and second stages and the attributes from the framework reveals that most of the attributes have been confirmed by the participants as the key qualities of their favourite places

Attributes identified by the participants	Main attributes of place: the research framework
Natural environment, air quality, animal, birds	Nature
Great views, vista, openness, feeling of freedom, Its high, overview (over the city)	Views and vistas
Serenity, puts me in a good mood, the atmosphere, good feelings, refreshes my mind, spiritual/healing atmosphere, therapy quality	Psychosocial comfort
Calmness, quiet, relaxed	Relaxation
Play, sport, exercise, free gym equipment, ride on horses and carriages, jogging	Physical activity
Maintenance, clean and tidy, clean toilet	Cleanness
History, originality	Historical significance
It is not the same as other places for me, it is the best place in the city, that's the only place I know	Emotional dependence
For shopping, to buy handicrafts, I like the traditional shops, window shopping, lots of facilities, events, celebrations, best place to buy	Functional dependence
Great architecture, nice sculptures, grandeur	Design quality
It is close to the bazaar, shopping, library, university	Dialogue with context
Good for walks, walks with my family, walk through here	Walkability
Good memories, remind me good time of the past, memory of the last regime (Shah)	Past experiences
I feel free, no moral police, I do whatever I want, no rules, there is no time limit to stay here, I am in control, it's always open, I can listen to music, I can sing	Control
I have my own corner, I like the side of the pond, where I always go	Appropriation
My knowledge about the place, my native place	Familiarity
Easily accessible, I can go there by bus	Accessibility
Water, water features, pond, fountain	Nature
Safe, socially healthy place, safe place for family, no hooligans	Feeling Safe
Cultural heritage, national identity, national pride	Identity by place
Meeting the opposite sex, meeting finds, meeting place	Meeting place
To see other people, to see something different, to watch seasonal change, watch cars	Watching
For Hafez himself, fortune telling, auspicious	Emotional dependence
It is always busy, lots to do	Vitality
Close to my home, near my work place	Physical distance (close)
Sheltered, good seats, pergola, good for picnic, I can sit on grass	Physical comfort
I just like it, I just enjoy it, feel happy here	Satisfaction
To eat, cafe, good food, BBQ, best ice-cream, good restaurant	Functional dependence
Nice at night	Emotional dependence
Good place for studying	Functional dependence
Free parking, plenty of car parks available	Functional dependence

All the attributes of place which are rated as having a high degree of importance for people are concerned with the qualities in the immediate surroundings of their favourite places which would comprehensively serve their daily needs (functional dependence).

The three attributes of 'wider context', 'walkability', 'accessibility', which were not classified as 'highly significant' in the second survey, were confirmed by the participants as important attributes. For 3.1% of the participants, the proximity of other important places and streets is an important factor, and 3.1% of the participants believe that 'walkability' and 2.1% 'accessibility' are important attributes.

5.7 Summary and conclusion

This chapter presents results and analysis, and aims towards developing a framework that can be used for analysing places in the public arena of cities. As a result of a two-stage survey study and multiple analyses, a 'theoretical framework' for analysing place in the public arena of cities is proposed. In order to establish a comprehensive analytical account for 'place' in the public arena of cities, the research developed a multidisciplinary theoretical framework consisting of 45 main attributes of place (Chapter Three). Choosing a mixed-methodological approach, a two-stage survey study was designed and conducted. To answer the main research question, the research method was designed to investigate the cross-cultural similarities in the attributes of place in the public arena of cities, and ultimately to fulfil the research aim to develop a generic framework for the analysis of place in cities. Data was collected from 3856 participants in stage one and 4045 participants in stage two in eight Iranian cities, each with a predominantly distinct cultural and geographical background (details on the methodology and research design can be found in Chapter Four). To sum up the findings of this chapter, the overall results are summarised as follows.

5.7.1 Multiple-case studies as opposed to a single-case study

One of the key findings of this chapter is the validity of a two-stage survey study as a reliable method of inquiry, which also fulfils the third research objective to develop a methodology to examine the main attributes of place in different cultural settings. In this case, in the first stage, participants are responsible for the selection of the main survey setting, not the researcher. An overview on many studies on places and space in the public domain shows that they have been at the behest of policymakers or urban managers, and generally to obtain specific information about a specific issue; subsequently, the single-case study has been the preferred method of research, perhaps to the neglect of alternative approaches. Analysing the data from individual cities,

however, reveals that there is no consistency across all sample cities in their selection of place type.

5.7.2 Attributes derived from the literature are matched with those identified by the participants

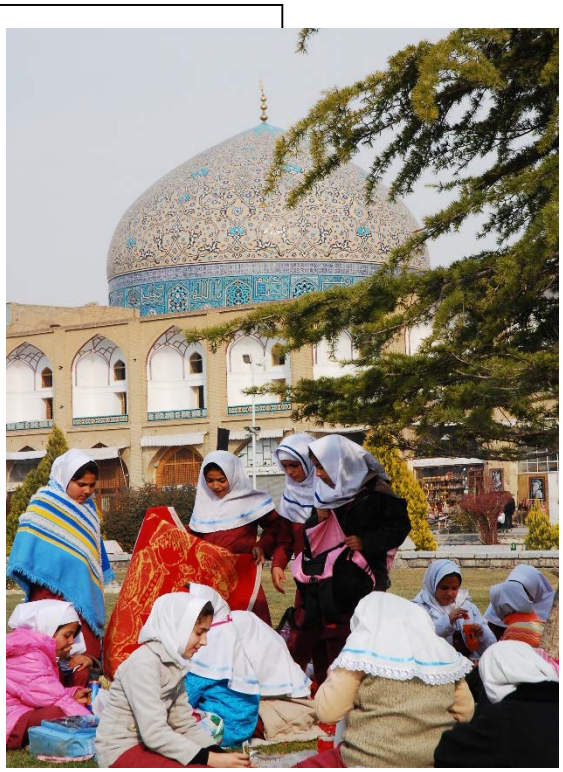
The results show that the participants of the different cities surveyed share common attributes towards their favourite public places. There is a very small variation in this regard, but compared with the generic attributes across all sample cities, this variation is insignificant. A comparison between the results from the first stage with the theoretical framework supports the accuracy of the main attributes of place as the content of the framework. The similarity between the participants' and the researchers' views shows that users have the ability to participate in the design and analysis of urban places.

5.7.3 Spatial attributes key to experience of place

Respondents show their concerns about the environmental quality and liveability of places in their cities. They appreciate a range of different attributes that contribute to such quality. As the result arising from the first stage in all eight sample cities shows, the general attitude of the respondents has a high emphasis on these spatial qualities of place. A high percentage of the responses (53.1%) account for spatial characteristics of place, such as: natural environment, views and vista, play and exercise, maintenance and cleanliness, opportunity of shopping and architectural quality (Table 5.11). The function of place is also highly valued by the respondents; basic functions such as eating, drinking, sitting, walking, shopping, and watching are amongst the most important functions of a place.

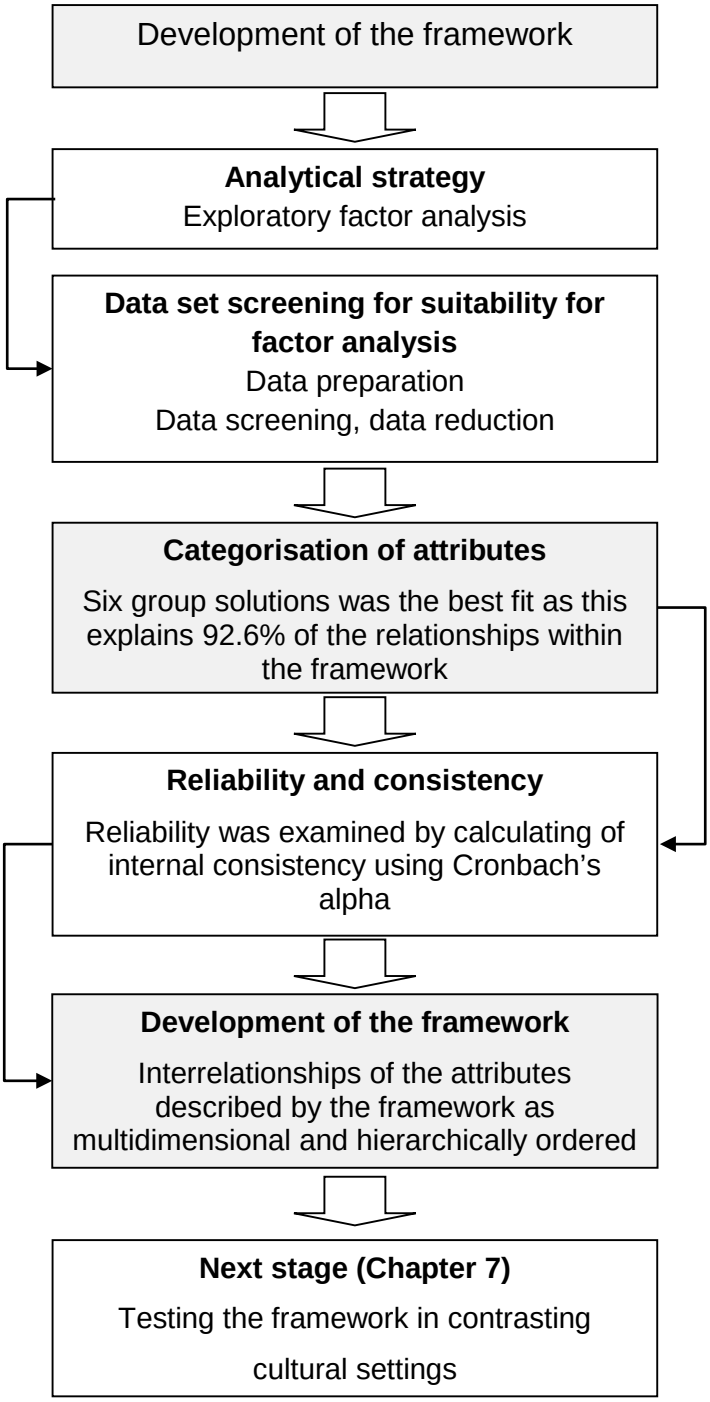
This also shows how places in the cities are an integral part of social and psychological life of people. Even in the case of inadequacy of public places in the city of Sari, people were expressing their disappointment of lacking such a place and often envisioned projects in the city and how they could impact on their well-being.

Finally, to achieve the aim of the research, the results of the second survey will be analysed further into a theoretical framework. The next chapter is dedicated to the process in which a 'framework for place' is developed.



Towards the Development of a Framework for Place

Chapter 6: Towards the Development of a Framework for Place



6.1 Introduction

In previous chapters, the study produced an integrated social-spatial-symbolic conceptual basis for understanding place (Chapter Three); also, the analysis of the results from the survey study identified the significant attributes of place which are common across cultures (Chapter Five). As outlined in the research design, this chapter seeks to develop the framework by synthesising the empirical findings of the research, mainly from the second stage of the survey, which was conducted in the participants' top two favourite public places in sample cities in Iran. Thus, the aim of this chapter is to analyse the results and to explore the interrelationships between the significant attributes and to present a clearer picture of the interrelated dimensions of 'place'.

In particular, this chapter answers these research objectives: to develop a methodology to examine the main attributes of place in different cultural settings, and to identify the interrelationship and hierarchy of attributes within favourite places. In an attempt to develop a framework for place, the study applied exploratory factor analysis (utilising SPSS) to confirm the categories of dimensions and their hierarchical interrelationships.

6.2 Analysis strategy: exploratory factor analysis

The notion of place is a multilayered construct; such a complex and multifaceted concept cannot be measured with one single attribute (Canter, 1985; Stedman, 2003a), yet studies in this field suffer from a lack of clarity in empirical research (Stedman, 2002). As the research framework illustrates, there are 45 main attributes to describe that complexity, but so far the research has been unable to verify their interrelationships or any hierarchy amongst them.

Due to the uncertainty concerning the hierarchical interrelations across the attributes of place, and the fact that the system of grouping or dimensionality of the concept of place is also unknown to this research, exploratory factor analysis was utilised to explore these issues and to explore dimensionality and detailed relationships between the attributes. Ultimately, through a statistical analysis, data was transformed into groups of attributes which perform the main structure of the proposed framework for place.

Field (2009) describes the main uses of factor analysis as: to provide an understanding of the structure and dimensions within a set of variables, and help to reduce large datasets to more manageable amounts while still retaining the original information. Factor analysis helps this research to identify those attributes that have high correlations between them, and are independent of other subsets of attributes, then combine them

into groups (Gaur & Gaur, 2009); in this way each group of attributes has a strong correlation within it, meaning that they refer to a similar idea, which in the case of this research might be a dimension of place.

Since this thesis, several other researchers have employed factor analysis on various data sets, reporting a range of frameworks and structures (Table 6.1). Many of these investigations have been conducted on reasonably small samples: the smallest sample size was 55, while Field (2009) and Tabachnick and Field (2001) suggest that, for the technique to be appropriate, the minimum sample size for factor analysis should not be smaller than 300. They argue that the small sample size increases the risk of error and therefore the reliability of the results is questionable (Kline, 2000). Table 6.1 shows that several studies have a sample smaller than 300, making the use of factor analysis unsuitable and therefore the findings questionable. In comparison, this research claims to have suitable sample size to conduct exploratory factor analysis.

Table 6.1: Recent empirical researches that have employed factor analysis as the main analytical technique, some of which have employed less than the required sample size (n=300).

Author's name (year)	Research focus	Sample size	Method
Radfar (this research, 2013)	Development of a framework for place	n= 7901 (two stages) n=4045 for FA	Mixed + FA
Venables *et al.* (2012)	Sense of place and proximity	n=1326	FA
Prayag & Ryan (2012)	Place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction	n=705	FA
Bailey *et al.* (2012)	Place attachment	n=8600	FA
Raymond *et al.* (2010)	The measurement of place attachment	n= 1643	FA
Goslin & Williams (2010)	Connectedness to nature/place attachment	n=141	FA
Fleury *et al.* (2008)	Place identity	n=257	FA
Beerli *et al.* (2007)	Self-congruity and destination choice	n= 552, LSQ	FA
Brown & Raymond (2007)	Relationship between place attachment and landscape values	n=1900, LSQ	FA
Kyle *et al.* (2005)	Dimensionality of place attachment in recreational setting	n=1630, LSQ	FA
Balram *et al.* (2005)	Attitudes towards urban green spaces	n=135	FA
Kyle *et al.* (2004)	Relationship between place motivation and place attachment	n=860, LSQ	FA
Herzog & Leverich (2003)	Searching for legibility	n=352, LSQ	Mixed + FA
Korpela *et al.* (2002)	Restorative experience and children's place preferences	n=55	Mixed + FA
Stedman (2002)	Social psychology of place	n=1000, LSQ	FA
Jorgensen & Stedman (2001)	Sense of place as an attitude	n=282, LSQ	FA
Williams & Patterson (1995)	Measuring Place Attachment	n=380, LSQ	FA

6.2.1 Participants

Participants completed the second stage questionnaires during their visit to favourite places. As explained in the previous chapter, favourite places were identified through the first stage survey, conducted in eight Iranian cities (Table 6.2). Samples were selected randomly: after every nine people had passed by, the tenth one was selected to answer the survey questions (the sampling process was discussed in Chapter Four).

Table 6.2: Number of responses to the second survey in the top two favourite public places in each city.

Survey study cities	First favourite place	Responses	Second favourite place	Responses
Mashhad	Mellat Park	321	Kuh Sangi	327
Isfahan	Imam Square	252	Khajoo Bridge	246
Tabriz	Shah Goli	273	Valiasr Avenue	250
Shiraz	Hafezieh	319	Eram Garden	304
Kerman	Riaziat Park	207	Motahari Park	216
Hamadan	Ganj Nameh	257	Bu Ali Sina Tomb	236
Bandar Abbas	Ghadir Park	218	Dowlat Park	221
Sari	Tajan Park	398	Nowhere	0
	TOTAL: 4045	2245		1800

In total, data was collected from 4045 participants. Responses were on a five-point Likert scale with the following meanings: 5- Strongly agree, 4- Agree, 3- Neutral, 2- Disagree, and 1- Strongly disagree. An example of a completed questionnaire can be found in Appendices A1 and A2.

6.2.2 Data screening

Data was screened to examine the data for unusual observations and to ensure the accuracy and the correctness of the data entered into the data files. Problems such as missing data would have an impact on the variables' relationship and therefore on the outcome of the calculation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Missing data was examined by attributes and by respondents. Only two missing items of data were identified and deleted from the final computation. Pearson correlation tables were examined for any extreme correlations and outliers (a value of 0.7 and above). For an accurate analysis, data screening must be executed and all issues should be resolved.

Data accuracy and adequacy tests for factor analysis were executed by SPSS. The sampling adequacy test of Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin was 0.880, representing a great

probability of identifying patterns within attributes and the possibility of identifying commonalities across samples (Kaiser, 1970). Figure 6.1 describes the step-by-step process of factor analysis which was employed by this research.

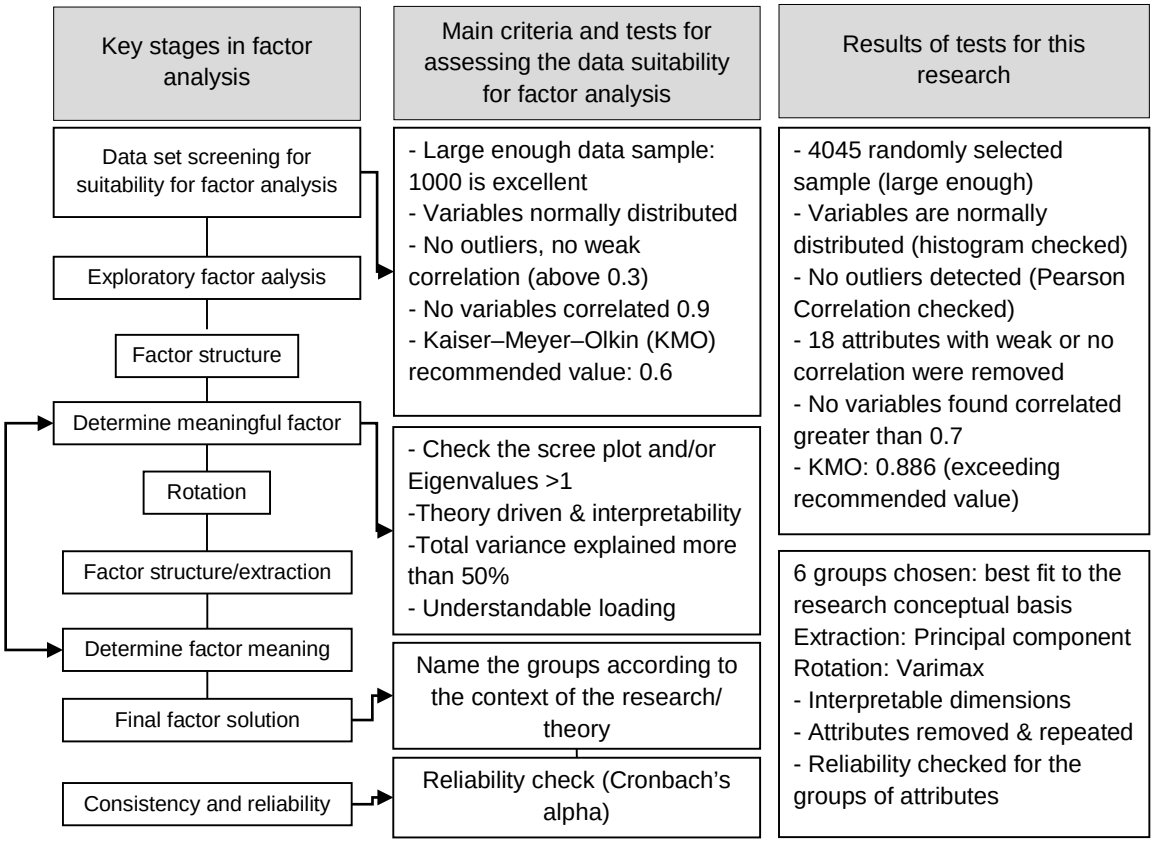


Figure 6.1: The study utilised standard statistical tests and checked the data against the recommended criteria to ensure the suitability of the primary data which was collected from 4045 respondents (Source: author).

6.2.3 Data reduction

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Field (2009) assert that, in the process of factor analysis, variables need to correlate well: 'variables that correlate with no others should be eliminated from the analysis' (Field, 2009, p.648); therefore, they suggest the use of an R-matrix (or correlation matrix). This matrix quantifies the relationships across the attributes and assigns a numeric value to highlight the significance. Field further asserts that variables with a correlation value of smaller than 0.3 should be deemed insignificant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009) and removed.

A correlation matrix for the data was computed, using SPSS. The matrix, therefore, was utilised to check the pattern of relationships; as per Tabachnick and Field's suggestion, attributes with a correlation value of less than 0.3 were removed from the final

calculation. As a result, 18 attributes, illustrated in Table 6.3, were identified as insignificant and omitted.

Table 6.3: 18 attributes with a correlation value of less than 0.3 were identified as insignificant and removed from the framework; the remaining 27 attributes were analysed further by factor analysis.

	Significant Attributes		Insignificant Attributes
1	Appropriation	1	Accessibility
2	Childhood memory	2	Adaptability
3	Control	3	Cleanness
4	Design quality	4	Continuity (personal history)
5	Discovery	5	Dialogue with context
6	Emotional dependence	6	Everyday routine
7	Familiarity	7	Freedom of action
8	Feeling safe	8	Historical significance
9	Functional dependence	9	Legibility
10	Identity by place	10	Novelty
11	Identity of place	11	Participation & involvement
12	Image & appearance	12	Physical distance (far)
13	Meaning	13	Physical protection
14	Meeting place	14	Position in social order
15	Nature	15	Restorative effect
16	Past experience	16	Social accessibility
17	Personalisation	17	Vitality
18	Physical activity	18	Walkability
19	Physical comfort		
20	Physical distance (close)		
21	Presence of others		
22	Presence of self		
23	Psychosocial comfort		
24	Relaxation		
25	Satisfaction		
26	Views & vista		
27	Watching		

6.2.4 Factor analysis

Initially, the 27 remaining attributes (Table 6.3) were examined. As discussed above, standard criteria for the suitability of the data for factor analysis (factorability) were utilised (Osterlind *et al.*, 2001; Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Bryman & Cramer, 2009; Field, 2009). The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measures of sampling adequacy, calculated at the value of 0.880, showed a value above the recommended value (0.6). Bartlett's test of sphericity, another method for testing correlation, was also significant (χ^2 (378) = 29007.857, p < .05) showing that the remaining attributes are highly

correlated. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over 0.6 (average), supporting the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis.

Finally, the communalities were all above 0.3, with 13 items greater than 0.5, confirming that a number of attributes share a common factor with other items; therefore a meaningful grouping is highly probable. Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was conducted with 27 items, reporting as follows.

6.3 Proposed framework

Principal components analysis was used because the primary purpose was to identify and compute scores for each of the attributes. The ratio of Eigenvalue was calculated to explore the significance of the correlation of each attribute with respect to other attributes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009) to define the number of groups. This suggested a six-group solution as the best fit, as it could explain 92.6% of the relationships within the framework. The first group explains 39.3% of the variance, demonstrating the high influence of this group of attributes on the framework; the second group explains 18.3%, the third 10.6%, and the fourth, fifth and sixth groups 9.9%, 7.5% and 6.9% respectively.

The total variance of 92.6% explains how much of the information of the framework is explained by the six groups of attributes. Therefore, a six-group solution, which explains 92.69% of the relationship across the attributes, was preferred, because it performs a strong solution with a potential interpretability, based on the conceptual basis of the research.

Table 6.4: Exploratory factor analysis. Loadings of <0.4 are not reported. Cronbach's alpha explains the consistency and reliability of the group of attributes.

A proposed framework for place in the public arena of cities across cultures in Iran	IRAN (8 cities, n=4045)					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Views and vista	.673					
2. Satisfaction	.638					
3. Design quality	.626					
4. Image and appearance	.613					
5. Functional dependence	.596					
6. Past experience	.587					
7. Meaning	.579				.537	
8. Nature	.562		.553			
9. Identity of place	.521					
10. Psychosocial comfort		.814				
11. Appropriation		.812				
12. Relaxation		.683				
13. Personalisation		.572				
14. Feeling safe		.534				
15. Control			.798			
16. Physical activity			.787			
17. Physical comfort			.645			
18. Discovery				.754		
19. Meeting place				.651		
20. Identity by place				.640		
21. Childhood memory					.717	
22. Emotional dependence					.697	
23. Familiarity					.602	
24. Physical distance (close)					.570	
25. Watching						.876
26. Presence of self						.862
27. Presence of others						.526
Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)	.832	.752	.742	.784	.701	.694

Attributes with a loading value below 0.4 were suppressed and no cross-loadings of 0.4 or above were accepted (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009). The six-factor solution provided the best defined structure, with only two interpretable cross-loadings. All items had loadings over 0.4. The final result is presented in Table 6.4.

6.3.1 Reliability

Reliability of each group of attributes was examined by calculating internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha, which is the most common method for scale or group of variables reliability (Field, 2009). When a group of variables is internally consistent, that means the variables describe the same idea (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Kline (2000) suggests that generally a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 is accepted as strong and appropriate for most studies with a large sample. He further argues that in some cases with factors containing less than three variables, values above 0.6 can also be expected.

Overall reliability of the 27 attributes was calculated at 0.924, which illustrates a high internal consistency amongst the totality of the framework, describing the reliability of the

attributes to measure the same concept, in this case ‘place in the public arena of cities’. The reliability of each group, however, varied from 0.694 to 0.832 (Table 6.4), which shows that each group has an individual internal consistency. The first group, with nine attributes, with a value of 0.832, has the strongest reliability, meaning that the attributes accurately define the same dimension of place; and the sixth group, with only three attributes, with a value of 0.694, has the weakest reliability, yet within the acceptable range. This shows that the framework has a high level of internal consistency and reliability (Field, 2006), meaning that the identified attributes can be trusted to examine the concept of place.

6.3.2 Validity: methodological triangulation

Validity is generally concerned with whether what the result is measuring is actually what it meant to measure. It is important to realise that a result might have an acceptable degree of reliability but still not be able to measure what it is supposed to measure; therefore, it is important for the research to have both reliability and validity. Flick (2002) argues that validation could be done by triangulation of the data. Methodological triangulation is one of many types of triangulations.

It involves using more than one method and can use qualitative and/or quantitative methods. Triangulation has been used in both qualitative and quantitative methods to prevent research findings being labelled as biased through use of a single method or source, or through the researchers themselves. It is believed that the combination of multiple empirical materials and perspectives in a study adds rigour, richness, and validity to any inquiry (Flick, 2002; Denzen & Lincoln, 2005).

In this context, the results from the surveys at both stages, which have been produced by different methods of analysis, are compared as follows. A comparison presented in Figure 6.2 indicates that the majority of the attributes collated directly from the participants in the first survey are highly correlated and correspond with the main attributes of the proposed framework. This is also in agreement with the comparative analysis between the graphic descriptions of the results, as presented in Chapter Five, section 5.5.3. There are, however, minor inconsistencies between the two results and this could be because, as factor analysis shows, the proposed framework explains only 92.6% of the information and not the whole; therefore, minor differences are predictable.

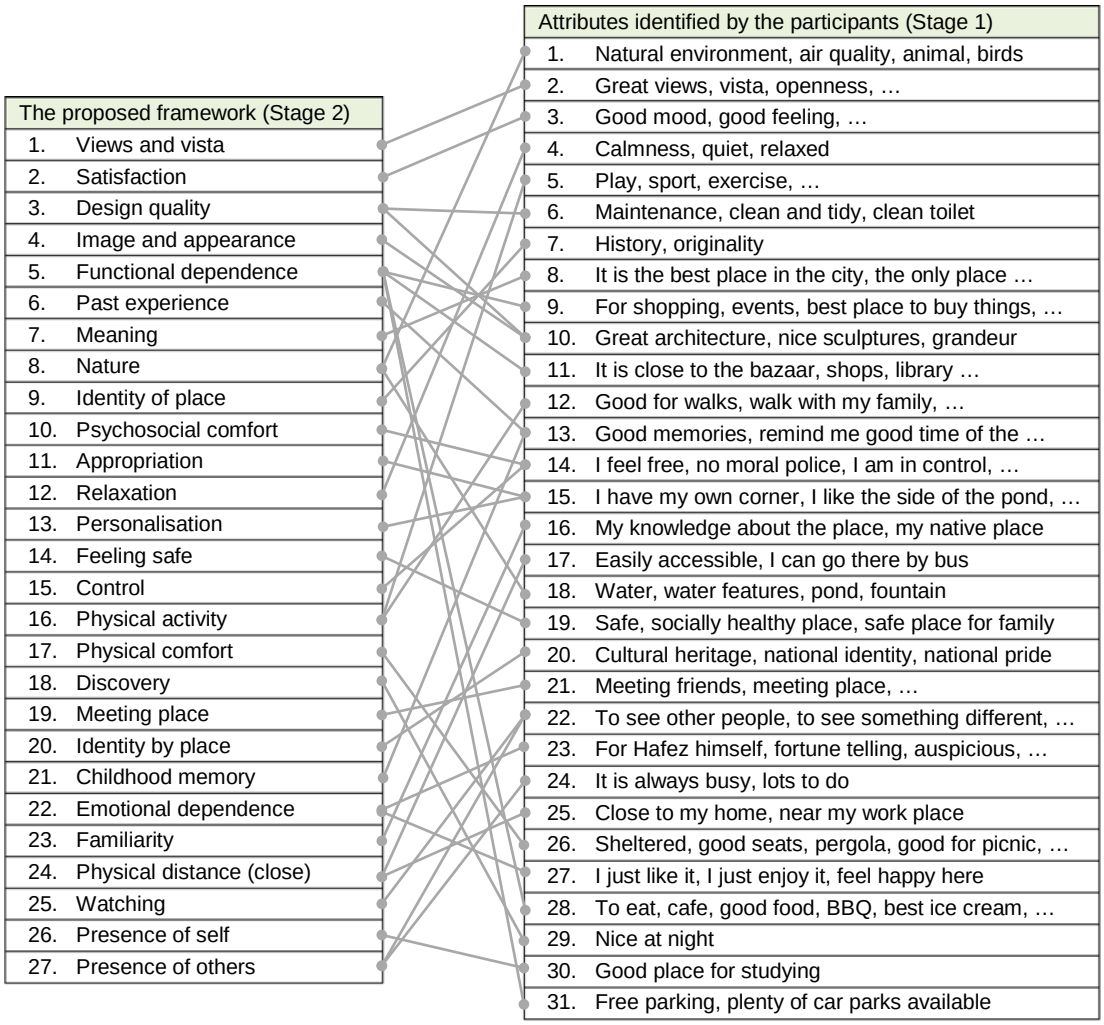


Figure 6.2: Correlation between the results from both stages. For the purpose of this figure the results from the first stage are abbreviated; the complete list of attributes can be found in Chapter Five, Table 5.9.

A comparison between the two sets of data along and their interrelationships, demonstrate significant similarity between the participants' attitude and the key qualities of place that were identified in relevant conceptual and empirical literature. Although a strong correlation is apparent, nevertheless some of the attributes are comprised of combined qualities which create multiple relations with more than one attribute. For example 'Functional dependence' could be related to a number of qualities, such as, 'Car parking, Close to Bazaar and shops' or places for 'Good food'. Also many of the attributes could be interpreted as 'Physical activity' and it is not limited only to 'Walking' or 'Play, Sport and Exercise'. However from a generic point of view, the driving forces for placemaking are similar and the public preferences are responding to the needs, opportunities and assets (Arefi, 2014) which are provided by place. This observation also shows that places constantly evolve and unfold in a diversity of ways, and placemaking

is not an end product, rather a process. In this sense the results from comparison of the both sets of data show that the process of placemaking identified by participants and the literature, in another words the driving forces for placemaking, are the same.

6.4 The issue of dimensions

Reviewing existing literature and academic discourse in the study of 'place in the public arena' highlights that concept of place involves multiple and interrelated definitions, and while researchers agree that the concept of place is a multidimensional, multifaceted, multilayer concept (Canter, 1977; Madanipour, 2000, 2003; Kohn, 2004; Schmidt & Nemeth, 2010), there is little empirical evidence to provide an accurate account for such a debatable concept.

The proposed framework by this research is therefore an attempt to present a clearer picture of the interrelated dimensions of 'place'. Six groups of attributes can therefore explain the dimensionality of place and provide a detailed definition for each layer. Therefore, each of the identified groups of attributes defines different aspects of public places. Based on the theoretical or conceptual framework under investigation, or based on the predominant content of groups of variables, each group could potentially be assigned with a dimension or a concept. This could be helpful for the analysis, as it assures that the analytical solution is conceptually valid.

As discussed in Chapters Two and Three, the study and analysis of place cannot only be concerned with spatial form. It should also incorporate the social and symbolic aspects of place in its broader sense. Therefore, this research incorporates ideas of an integrated approach to the study of place and makes use of the social-spatial-symbolic approach to understanding place: its spatial form, its social interaction with spatial dimensions, and its transformation of symbolic meanings.

In this context, the analysis of place is possible through understanding these three conceptual dimensions and the linking overlapping dimensions of 'social-spatial', 'social-symbolic' and 'spatial-symbolic'. While the result of the factor analysis has divided the attributes into six groups, and since the conceptual basis for the research and their overlapping could potentially make six dimensions, it seems convenient for the research to assign each group to each dimension. However the scope of the attributes is beyond a single dimension or their intermingling areas, and there is no clear justification for such categorisation; also, some groups contain a number of attributes which belong to one or

more dimensions. Therefore, the research suggests not to assign them to specific dimensions.

In the following sections, the six groups of attributes of places in the public arena of cities are structured and discussed, and finally a framework for the analysis of place will be proposed.

6.5 Development of the framework

Reviewing the content of each group of attributes indicates the dominant characteristics of each group; this provides useful descriptions of the underlying constructs of the main elements of the framework and helps to facilitate clarity for further analysis. Following factor analysis, the result reveals the structure of the framework in multilayered and hierarchical relationships. After data reduction, the 27 remaining key attributes are organised into six groups, defining six layers of interrelation across the attributes.

6.5.1 Multidimensionality of the framework

The results can explain the hierarchical interrelationship across the groups of attributes and individually within the framework. Based on their percentages of variance, the groups are ranked according to their influence on the framework. As described earlier, group one carries the highest information with a value of 39.3% of the total attributes, and group six with 6.9% has the least (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Hierarchical order of the six groups of attributes, defined by the percentage of variance that each group explains (calculated by SPSS).

Group	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	6.294	39.312	39.312	6.294	39.312	39.312	6.080
2	3.674	18.312	57.624	3.674	18.312	57.624	4.867
3	2.786	10.614	68.238	2.786	10.614	68.238	3.662
4	2.614	9.978	78.216	2.614	9.978	78.216	4.156
5	1.917	7.508	85.724	1.917	7.508	85.724	4.071
6	1.871	6.966	92.69	1.871	6.966	92.69	3.218

Attributes are also ranked in descending order from top to bottom of the table. Each attribute is assigned with a loading value (correlation score), representing the value of correlations between each attribute and within their group. The higher the value, the more pertinent the definition within the group.

6.5.2 Group one

This group, which describes 39.3% of the framework, has the highest contribution towards understanding of public places. Group one comprises nine attributes: ‘views and vista’, ‘satisfaction’, ‘design quality’, ‘image and appearance’, ‘functional attachment’, ‘past experience’, ‘meaning’, ‘nature’ and ‘identity of place’. The value of the attributes varies from 0.673 (highest) for ‘views and vista’ to 0.521 (lowest) for ‘identity of place’. This means that while this group describes 39.3% of the whole framework, ‘views and vista’ is the most important attribute within the group (Figure 6.3).

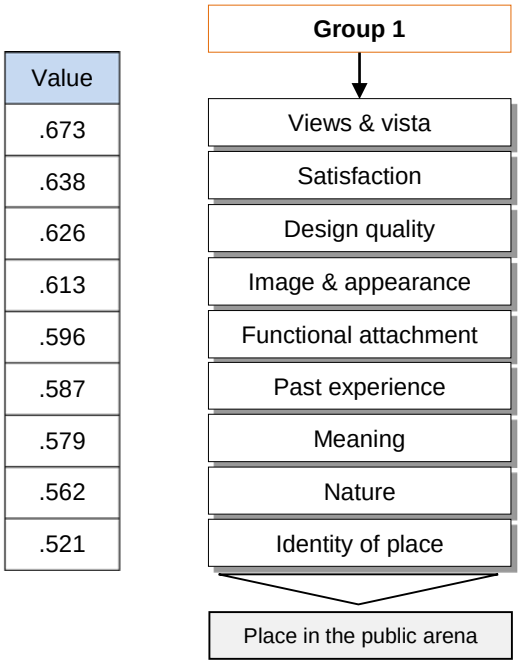


Figure 6.3: Interrelationships and hierarchical order of the attributes, defined by the degree of correlations of each attributes within the group. Group one with nine attributes presents 39.3% of the framework.

From the attributes it becomes apparent that the spatial dimension of place forms a significant part of this group. Attributes such as ‘views and vista’, ‘design quality’, ‘image and appearance’, ‘nature’ and ‘identity of place and function’ describe spatial characteristics of place. But it is equally clear that symbolic meanings of place are also important in this group.

The importance of ‘views and vista’ was also highlighted in the first survey by the participants, by electing it as the second most significant attribute. Other attributes from this group were also mentioned by the participants directly, such as ‘architectural and design quality’ and ‘nature’. However, participants were very explicit in describing the quality of their favourite places, and for example to describe views and vista they used

terms such as ‘feeling open, openness, and overview’, or in terms of the naturalness of place, the existence of ‘water, river, water feature and pond’ was very popular.

When participants assert that they ‘enjoy being in that place’ or ‘just like it’, this means they are satisfied with the overall experience of place, or when they talk about their good memories at their favourite place, they refer to their past experience. The diversity of the functions of favourite places were also emphasised by the participants in many ways (shopping, carriage and horse riding, restaurant, picnic, coffee shop, studying, car parking, etc.). As Figure 6.2 shows, all the attributes of this group are indicated by the participants as important qualities of their favourite places, and this confirms the correct approach of the analysis and the use of factor analysis.

One observation is that group one predominantly describes spatial-symbolic characteristics of places; therefore, it could be labelled the spatial-symbolic dimension of place. However, the reaction to the ‘image’ and ‘meaning’ of place and ‘past experience’ at the same time is highly social, therefore as explained earlier, any definite categorisation is arbitrary and not justifiable.

6.6 Group two

This group of attributes, with a response of 18.3%, is positioned as the second most influential group in the framework (Figure 6.4). This group is characterised by five attributes, including ‘psychological comfort’, ‘appropriation’, ‘relaxation’, ‘personalisation’ and ‘feeling safe’. The range of attributes in this group in general refers to social and spatial interactions in place. The relationship between social and spatial dimensions is dynamic.

The socio-spatial relationship is a dialectic exchange which is interactive between two dimensions, in which people make places and places make people. Social and spatial dimensions are interwoven and combined through an interrelationship of people with their environment. Social issues arise with problematic spatial structures of place, such as the lack of privacy (appropriation), and the lack of spatial hierarchy could in turn cause the lack of psychological comfort and relaxation.

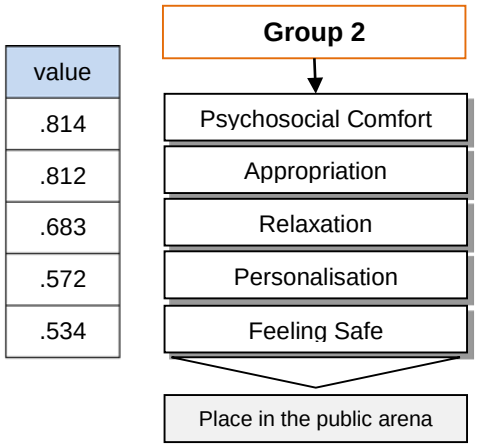


Figure 6.4: Group two with five attributes represents 18.3% of responses

This group also shows the interface between the private and public realm in the public domain. People transform public spaces into a semi-private place through appropriation and a temporary personalisation of space, by the creating spatial and symbolic boundaries. Although the interface between public and private is blurred, people generally make efforts to maintain the boundary.

Figure 6.5: Appropriation and personalisation of space transform public space into semi-private place; in this place people feel psychological comfort, relaxed and safe. Maidan Imam, Isfahan, Iran. Source: author.

A strong relationship between the attributes is apparent. This group describes the spatial situation which leads into social and psychological states such as comfort, relaxation and safety. It especially highlights the significance of appropriation and personalisation in the process of placemaking.

In terms of hierarchical interrelationship, ‘psychological comfort’ and ‘appropriation’ with values of 0.814 and 0.812 respectively appeared to have the strongest correlation within the group. The message of this group is that participants prefer their favourite places to be those that they can appropriate and personalise, and in such places they feel comforted, relaxed and safe.

6.7 Group three

The four attributes of this group, ‘control’, ‘physical activity’, ‘physical comfort’, and ‘nature’ encompass a grasp of mainly spatial dimensionality and describe a spatial relationship with place. This group accounted for 10.6% of the responses. ‘Control’, at the top of this group, is one of the key attributes for a successful place (Carr *et al.*, 1992); it is about the degree of freedom and motivation in decision-making and choices. Sharing the same group with physical activity and physical comfort suggests that people prefer to have control over spatial decisions, such as the types of activities.

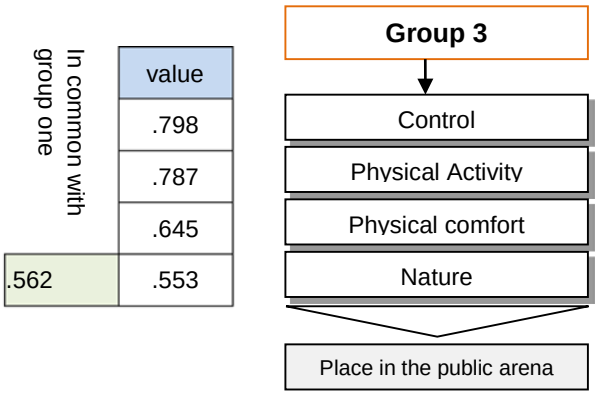


Figure 6.6: Group three illustrates spatial/physical aspects of place: the four attributes in this dimension presents 10.6% of the influence of the framework.

Responses suggest that the level of control of use and action in place and physical activities (sports, play and exercise) are strongly related. It also advocates that landscape and natural features provide opportunities for a range of activities; these attributes in turn have an impact on the perception of physical comfort. Therefore, physical comfort refers to a range of spatial characteristics and physical factors that directly affect a comfortable use of place.

Figure 6.7: Control of use and action and physical activities in a physically comfortable place within natural settings. Shah Goli, Tabriz, Iran. Source: author.

The attribute of 'nature' also appears in group one, reflecting that natural settings are highly significant in public places. This was overwhelmingly supported by the participants in the first survey, as illustrated in Chapter Five (Table 5.9). 'Natural features' were mentioned by 1420 respondents as the main reason for the selection of their favourite places, and with 9.2% of the total responses it stands at the top of the participants' list of significant attributes.

6.8 Group four

This group is mainly concerned with symbolic information which is contained in the spatial processes of place. In this context, people symbolically demarcate physical space and transform it into a place. There are three attributes allocated to this dimension: 'discovery', 'meeting place' and 'place-identity'.

The analysis of place from this point of view emphasises the symbolic manifestation of spatial form, and is largely dependent upon the physical elements of place. In this regard, place becomes a network of personal meaning, and not merely a physical location.

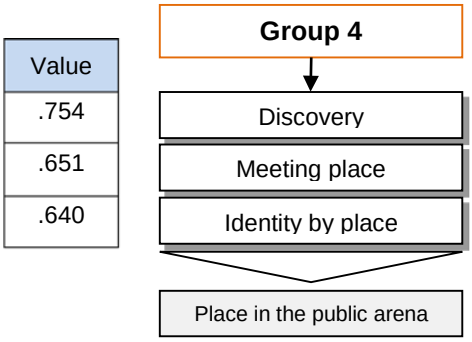


Figure 6.8: The fourth group of attributes

This group also suggests that a sense of exploration in place as a social need stimulates the human sense of imagination, and can strengthen people's relationship with place. Discovery in this context also can be seen as the opportunity for observing different people and meeting them in places, for a variety of activities, in which they engage and explore different parts of places. It is also about the diversity in the physical design and the changing vistas; such places often become a source of identity.

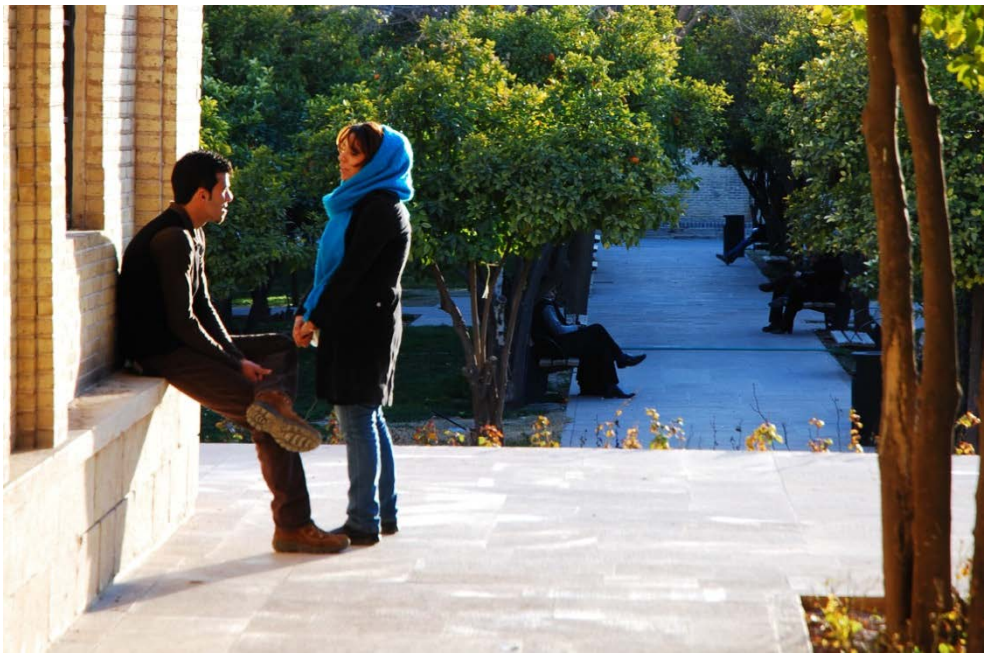


Figure 6.9: Favourite places are those which provide 'shadowed or slack' places to discover and offer opportunities for meeting and for less public activities. Such places often become a source of identity. Hafezieh, Shiraz, Iran. Source: author.

Meeting, as described in Chapters Two and Three, is an important opportunity that favourite public places offer. The importance of the attributes was also affirmed by the participants in the first survey. 'Meeting opportunities' was ranked as the 21st most

significant attribute by the respondents, while it is the 19th in the framework. This, yet again, shows the strong correlation between the two sets of results.

Places for discovery can also be referred to places which provide opportunity for less public activities. Worpole and Knox (2008) argue the need for such places, places which allow less public activities where people do not want or like to be seen in that situation, places which can be personalised. Worpole and Knox call these places ‘shadowed’ or ‘slack’ places. The results from the first stage also confirm the need for such places, where some of the participants like places which allow them to ‘meet opposite sex’ or ‘drink alcohol’.

6.9 Group five

This group mainly encompasses symbolic relationships to place that are formed by people. The attributes of this dimension, ‘childhood memory’, ‘emotional attachment’, ‘familiarity’ and ‘meaning’ all refer to symbolic and cultural meanings of a particular place that provides the basis for the individual’s and group’s understanding of and relationships to the place. ‘Distance’ is the only attribute in this group that refers to physical characteristics of place.

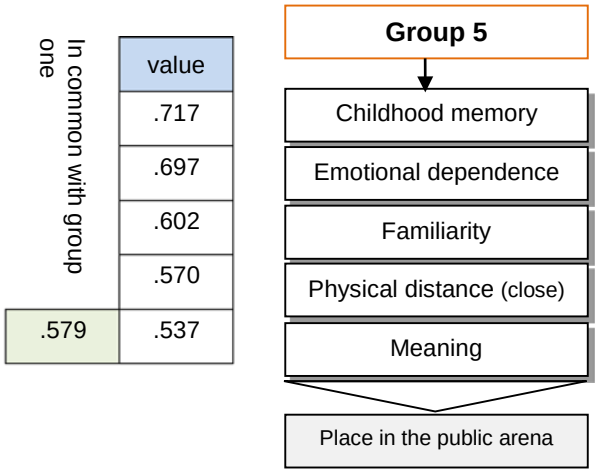


Figure 6.10: Group five, with five attributes

Thus, place from this group’s point of view is more than a physical experience, and includes cultural and symbolic meanings, and beliefs and practices, that link people to place. It is not a surprise to this research to find the first four attributes mentioned above in the same group, as the research supports a strong relationship between childhood memory and familiarity with emotional attachment to place (Marcus, 1992).

Another interpretation is that often, children use public spaces located close to their home (Veitch *et al.*, 2007); therefore, they develop strong emotional bonds with such places which then resonate in their adulthood (Marcus, 1992). 'Meaning' shares its dimensionality with the first group, by reflecting that meaning of place is realised through symbolic manifestation of spatial form of place.

6.10 Group six

This group encompasses social dimension of place, comprising the three attributes of 'watching', 'presence of self' and 'presence of others' (Figure 6.11). The social dimension of place deals with the social interrelationships of people who use and value their environment. Places in the public arena are host to a number of social activities.

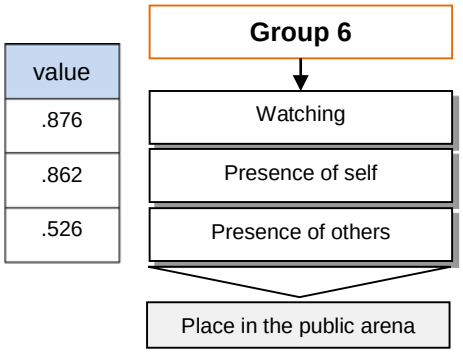


Figure 6.11: Group six, with three attributes, shows social attributes of place

Lefebvre (1984, 1991) argues that place is a result of spatial practice; however, it is generated as a social product, through human activity and social deployment of physical space. Place encompasses the setting for social interaction; therefore, meaningful places are developed in a social context and through social activities (Agnew & Duncan, 1989), such as watching. In this context the social dimension of place, in various forms, is an essential component of place.

A successful public place provides opportunities for universal human social activities such as watching, listening, talking, sitting, walking and standing (Gehl, 2010). While the quality of material and design of public places is an important aspect for the success of places in the public arena, the quality of the views and vista and what places offer for watching, as emphasised by the participants of this research, is also very important. There are numerous examples of natural and built places which have low physical comfort and poor quality of materials and finishes, yet they are popular places. The south end of Ghadir Park in Bandar Abbas (Figure 6.12) is a good example of such a place.

Figure 6.12: Watching is an essential social activity that places in the public arena provide for their users. Persian Gulf at Ghadir Park, Bandar Abbas, Iran. Source: author.

6.11 A framework for place

The result of this exercise is graphically illustrated in Figure 6.13 as an integrated framework for the analysis of place in the public arena of cities. The present framework asserts that the research methodological approach, based on the conceptual basis, has been capable of addressing the research question and establishing an approach to the study of place across cultures.

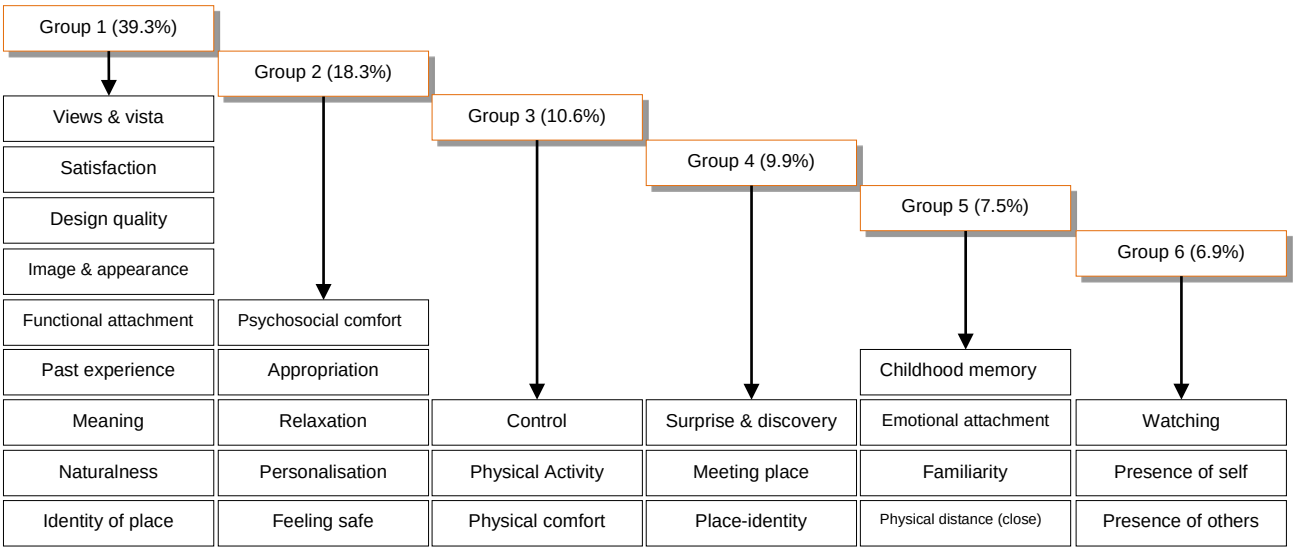


Figure 6.13: A proposed framework for the analysis of place in the public arena of cities. The framework illustrates the hierarchical interrelationship of the main common attributes of place across cultures.

6.12 Summary and conclusion

This chapter started from the analysis of the data, which was collected through the second stage of the survey in people's favourite places in eight Iranian cities. These favourite places were identified by the responses to the first stage of the survey. Following the presentation of the data in Chapter Five, the next challenge was to achieve the research objective: 'to identify the interrelationship and hierarchy of attributes within favourite places', and consequently to get one step closer to the aim of the research: the development of 'a generic framework for analysing places in the public arena of cities'.

Exploratory factor analysis (using SPSS) was utilised to identify the interrelationship across the most correlated attributes. Data suitability for factor analysis and significance of the attributes was explored using recommended statistical techniques. As a result, 18 attributes with weak (or no) correlation amongst the participants were removed from the final development of the framework, assuming that the remaining attributes are the highly significant common ones from participants across cultures.

The proposed framework (Figure 6.13) has been devised to carry out the analysis of place in the public arena of cities. To attain the research aim and objectives, the framework has been founded on three interrelated ideas, as explained below.

6.12.1 Multidimensionality of place in the public arena

Firstly, it should be acknowledged that public places in cities have social, spatial and symbolic dimensions, and that any study of place in the public arena of cities should address this multidimensionality. The proposed framework clearly addresses this notion by identifying six interrelated dimensions.

Although the tendency of groups of attributes towards specific or linking dimensions of place could be hypothesised, most of the attributes fall into the interface of the three dimensions (social-spatial-symbolic), while this research cannot provide evidence for such a distinct categorisation. Therefore, such classifications are arbitrary and do not help the academic discourse.

6.12.2 Hierarchically ordered attributes

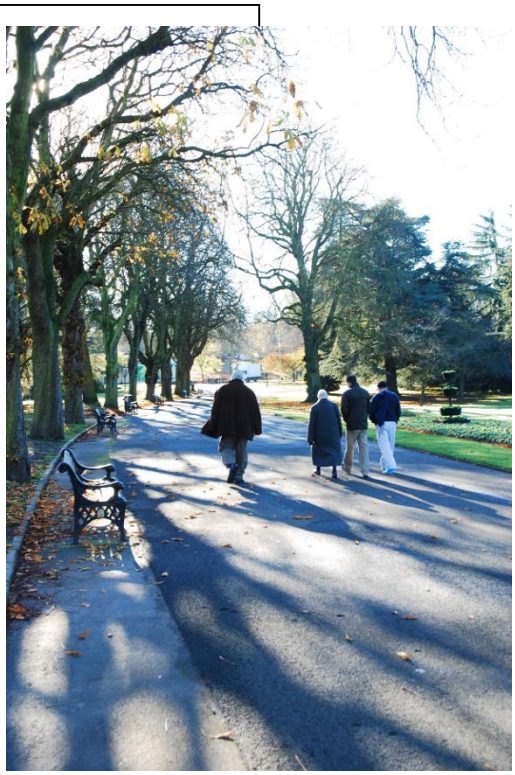
The proposed framework illustrates the relative importance of the attributes and their hierarchical relationships between both individual and groups of attributes. In this context, the first group contains the most significant attributes of place, and defines 39.3% of the framework. Depending on the situation, and when considering a collective

number of attributes, understanding the relative importance of them could support a better strategy for analysis and design of public places.

6.12.3 Common attributes across cultures

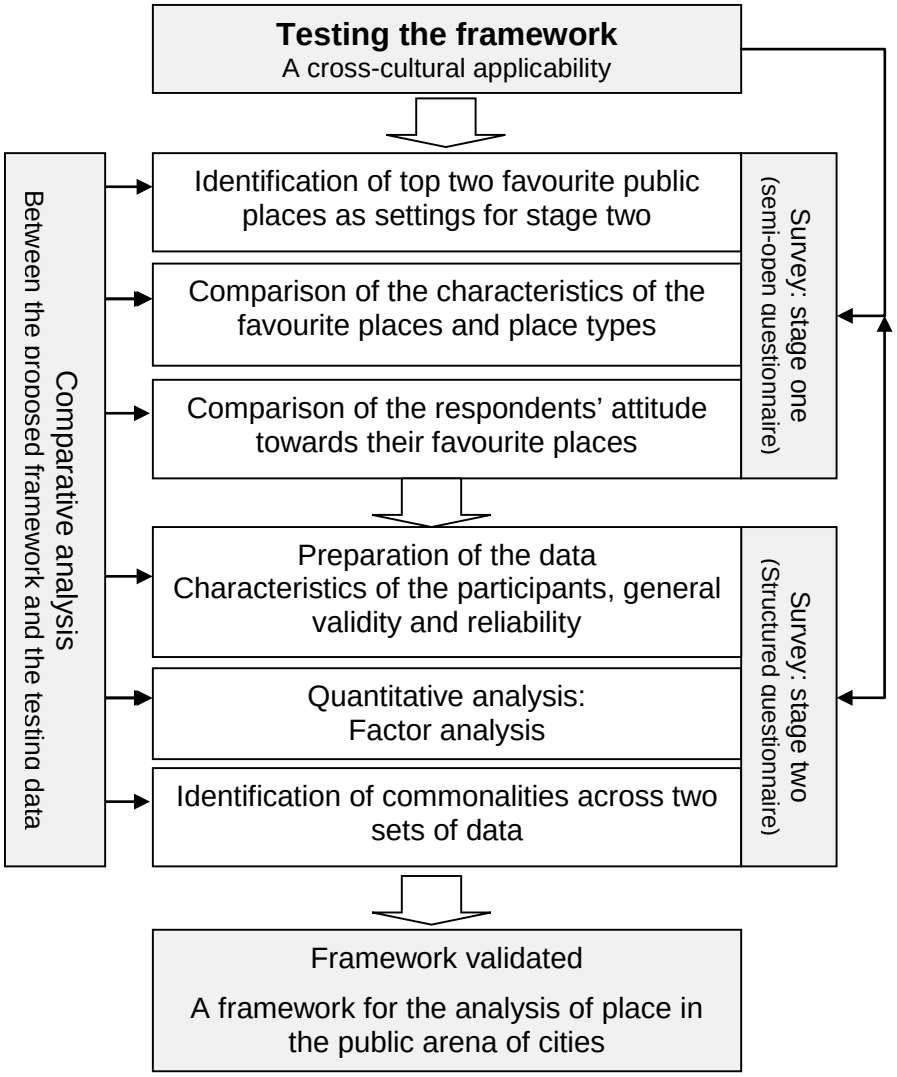
Since the framework was developed on the basis of a multisite, multicultural survey methodology, it is claimed to be applicable to other places across different cultural and geographical settings. Therefore, any particular analysis of place, regardless of the location, is determined by a number of key universal attributes.

The next step was to validate the applicability of the framework in contrasting cultural and geographical settings. In doing so, this research designed a validation method which was conducted in independent settings. This method and its application will be discussed and presented in the next chapter.



Testing the Framework: A Cross-cultural Applicability

Chapter 7: Testing the Framework: A Cross-cultural Applicability



7.1 Introduction

In order to achieve the research aim, this chapter is dedicated to testing and consequently validating the proposed framework. To achieve that, the framework which was developed from data from Iranian cities will be applied in a different cultural setting. By doing that, firstly, the framework and the research methodology will be validated, and secondly, its cross-cultural applicability will be confirmed.

The schedule of the testing is a replica of the original data collection; therefore, the data collection and analytical method follow the same procedure, including a two-stage data collection. Exploratory factor analysis will be utilised for the development of the framework, and the results will be compared with the main framework; finally the similarities and differences will be analysed, and accordingly a framework for place which is enriched with more cultural and geographical data will be proposed. This chapter then concludes with a framework for place, which comprises generic attributes of place and is asserted to be applicable across various cultural setting.

7.1.1 Testing design and sample

The testing utilises a cross-validation method which provides a rigorous examination (Byrne *et al.*, 1989), and a cross-comparison of the framework. In principle, the testing follows the same process as the main data collection of the research, and includes a two-stage survey and analysis.

During the first stage of the testing, the top two favourite public places in each city are identified. The second stage uses a survey questionnaire, including the 27 main attributes that formed the original framework. These attributes are the most correlated attributes of place across the participants in the eight Iranian cities, as analysed and presented in the previous chapter.

7.1.2 Sampling design

The sampling process is modelled upon the original data collection in the Iranian cities (as discussed in Chapter Four). The research employed two-stage sampling, as the samples of the first stage identified the settings and sample frames for the second stage. In the selection of samples, random sampling is used. The research took careful measures to avoid potential risks of biases that were identified during the pilot study and the main data collection in Iranian cities. Satisfactory sampling was therefore concerned not only to avoid bias, but in order to ensure representation of different groups and individuals in both the research process and survey analyses.

7.1.3 Sampling procedure and sample size

The main aim in determining the sample size for the testing was that it should be broad enough to illustrate a range of differences and influences and deep enough to provide rich description and represent the population; however, the accuracy of the sample, in terms of selection process, is more important than its size (Oppenheim, 1992.p, 43).

The sample size of a research study should be informed mainly by the research objectives, the type of research question and consequently by the research design (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2004). Since the research utilises factor analysis for the development of the framework (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009) it therefore required a minimum total of 300 participants (the minimum sample size for factor analysis was discussed in section 6.2).

7.1.4 Selection of the settings

In order to provide diversity across the sample, the research decided to conduct the survey in three settings. Although there is no minimum number of settings for quantitative methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), drawing conclusions based on one atypical setting or sample group poses a threat of internal generalisation (Maxwell, 1996), meaning that the conclusion may only be applicable to particular participants, settings, and temporal factors. On the other hand, having three sets of data provides analytical triangulation and contributes to the overall quality of the study as well as validating the research method.

It is also recommended that when a study is involved with the comparison of groups, a minimum of three cases per group should be selected (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Creswell, 2012). Therefore, in the case of this research, as the original data was collected in eight Iranian cities, testing cities with contrasting cultures from the main data collection were selected.

The main drive for the selection of the cities is to provide the research with diverse and different cultural backgrounds, in contrast with the settings in Iranian cities. Elements such as ethnic, economic, social and political persuasions, physical and spatial organisation, and symbolic and religious beliefs are the main criteria to be considered. In this context the selection requires cities which are comparable with Iranian cities in terms of regional importance, size and diversity of public places.

After careful consideration, including the above criteria, the three cities of Glasgow (Scotland), Birmingham (England) and Dublin (Ireland) were selected for the application

of the framework (Figure 7.1). The selected cities are believed to be diverse in terms of location, culture, social and political context.

Figure 7.1: Three cities of Glasgow, Dublin and Birmingham were selected for the testing of the framework. Source: adapted from http://www.freeusandworldmaps.com.

7.2 Data collection procedure: first and second stages

The data was collected during October–November 2010 and followed the same schedule as in Iran. Two-stage surveys were conducted across the three sample cities, three times a day: morning (09.00–11.00), midday (13.00–15.00) and evening (18.00–20.00), and on weekdays and at the weekend.

For the first stage, semi-open questionnaires were employed. In this stage respondents were asked to name their two favourite places in their cities, and to describe their reasons for each of their selections. As in the original data collection, participants were asked for their residency status and age; those who were tourists, temporary visitors and minors under 18 years of age were discounted from the sample frame. The results of this stage identified the respondents' top two favourite places in each city, which were then used as the settings for the second survey.

During the second survey, the framework was tested. Structured questionnaires, comprising 27 attributes of place as the main structure of the framework, were

implemented, utilising a five-point Likert scale. All questionnaires were filled in by the interviewer.

7.3 Response to the study

Six days were spent in undertaking both stages of data collection in each city. In order to rationalise the process, at the end of the third day, the research moved to the next stage, which then continued to reach a minimum of 100 responses in each city. This resulted in variations amongst the completed questionnaires in the three sample cities. As a result, a net sample of 378 responses at the first stage and 418 responses at the second stage were obtained.

Table 7.1 shows the number of responses in each stage, and in total. The highest numbers of participants was in Glasgow with 304 responses, followed by Birmingham with 249 and Dublin with 233 responses. The total of 418 responses for the testing of the framework also provided sufficiency for running a factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009, Comrey & Lee, 1997).

Table 7.1: Number of responses to the both stages of the survey

	Number of responses to the survey		
Survey study cities	**Stage 1**	**Stage 2**	**Total**
Birmingham	119	130	249
Dublin	109	124	233
Glasgow	150	164	304
	378	418	769

7.4 Characteristics of the respondents

Demographic data was collected to verify the validity of the sample population and the distribution of the age group and gender. The results show (Table 7.2) that through random sampling the research effectively reflected a diverse population.

The collected data was validated through ‘population validity’ (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007); therefore, the sample’s gender ratio and age distribution were compared with the countries’ national statistics.

Table 7.2: Characteristics of the respondents

Demographic	Categories	Birmingham	Glasgow	Dublin
Gender	Female	44.0%	41.0%	53.0%
	Male	56.0%	59.0%	47.0%
Age Group	18 - 25	9.7%	9.8%	14.2%
	26 - 35	19.3%	18.3%	21.4%
	36 - 45	26.6%	23.6%	17.5%
	46 - 55	19.6%	19.6%	20.5%
	56 - 65	13.5%	16.5%	12.5%
	66 - 75	9.4%	7.5%	10.4%
	76+	1.9%	4.7%	3.5%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The result illustrates a good correlation between the research samples and the national population. Minor discrepancies could be as a result of the exclusion of participants under 18 years of age from the sample frame. According to the national censuses in all three countries, the number of males and females are fairly equal. In England the ratio is 49.5% male to 50.5% female (Office for National Statistics, 2011), in Scotland 48% male to 52% female (General Register Office for Scotland, 2012) and in the Republic of Ireland it is 49.5% male to 50.5% female (Ireland's Central Statistics Office, 2006) representing almost equal distribution between males and females.

7.5 First stage results: identification of the top two favourite places

During the first stage of the survey, the respondents' top two favourite places in each city were identified. As illustrated in Table 7.3, the Bullring shopping area and the Main Line Canal were selected by the respondents as their favourite places in Birmingham. In Glasgow, Buchanan Street in the city centre (which is one of the main shopping areas of the city) was selected as the first favourite place and Kelvin Grove Park ranked as second. Finally in Dublin, St. Stephen's Green with 13.3%, and Grafton Street with 11.7% were the top two favourite places.

Table 7.3: Top two favourite places in each city, with the number and the percentage of responses

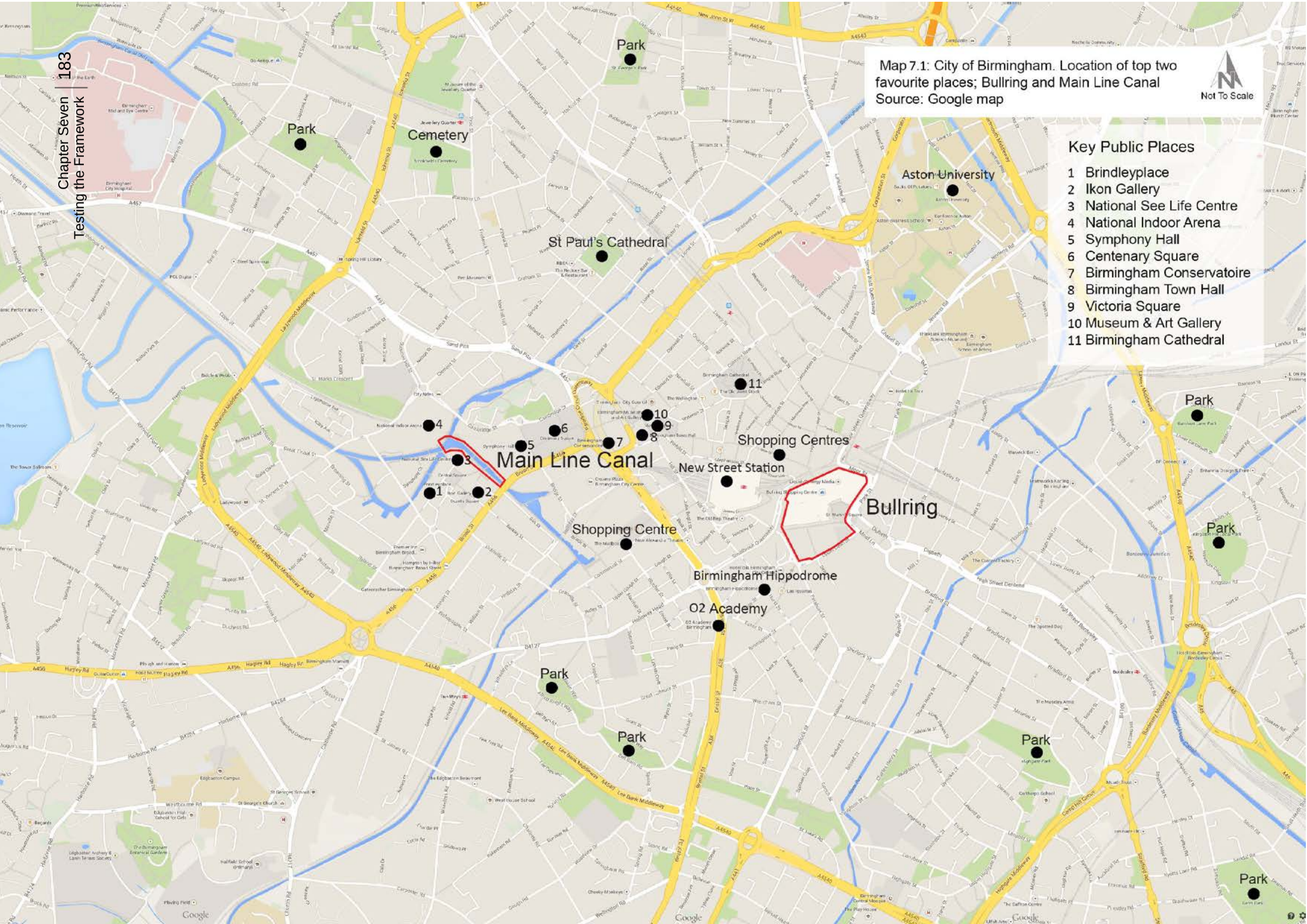
Survey study cities	First favourite public place	Selection		Second favourite public place	Selection	
		n	%		n	%
Birmingham	Bullring	32	13.4	Main Line Canal	24	10.1
Glasgow	Buchanan Street	31	14.2	Kelvin Grove Park	25	11.2
Dublin	St. Stephen's Green (park)	40	13.3	Grafton Street	35	11.7

In the following a brief description of the two favourite places in each city is presented (source of photographs: author).

City: **Birmingham (Map 7.1)** Selected places: **Bullring and Main Line Canal**

Name	**Bullring**
Location in the city	City centre, main shopping area
Main function	Shopping
Services	Indoor: shopping centre with 160 stores featuring 2000 fashion brands, food shops and restaurant, outdoor open market
Established	Historic market: since 1166 New shopping centre: 2003
Governance	Private (shopping centre)
Size	110,000 m^2 (retails)
Boundary	Controlled entrance to shopping centre
Opening time	9.00-20.00
Nearest centre	High Street and New Street, St Martin's church, old open market

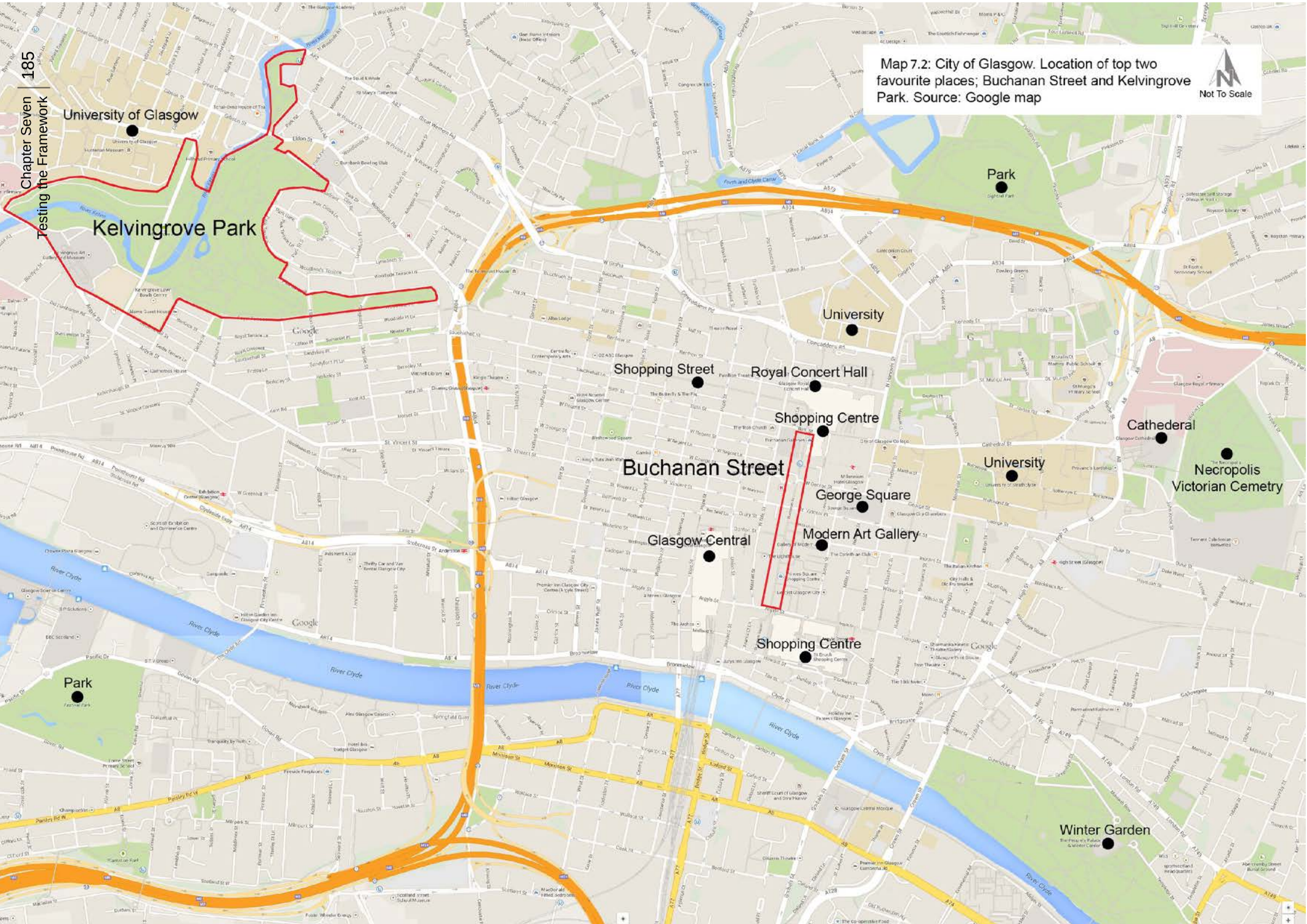
Name	**Birmingham Main Line Canal**
Location in the city	City centre
Main function	Canalside walking, cycling, boating
Services	Recreation, boat trips, restaurant, coffee shop, café
Established	1772 (regenerated in 1993)
Governance	Birmingham City Council
Size	7 miles long
Boundary	Public access
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	National Indoor Arena (NIA), International Convention Centre (ICC), National Sea Life Centre, Mailbox shopping centre, Broad Street


Map 7.1: City of Birmingham. Location of top two favourite places; Bullring and Main Line Canal
Source: Google map
Not To Scale
Key Public Places
1 Brindleyplace
2 Ikon Gallery
3 National See Life Centre
4 National Indoor Arena
5 Symphony Hall
6 Centenary Square
7 Birmingham Conservatoire
8 Birmingham Town Hall
9 Victoria Square
10 Museum & Art Gallery
11 Birmingham Cathedral
Main Line Canal
Bullring
Shopping Centres
New Street Station
Shopping Centre
Birmingham Hippodrome
O2 Academy
Aston University
St Paul's Cathedral
Cemetery
Park

City: **Glasgow (Map 7.2)** Selected places: **Buchanan Street and Kelvin Grove Park**

Name	**Buchanan Street**
Location in the city	City centre
Main function	Shopping, offices
Services	Retails, shopping centres, offices, restaurants, cafe
Established	1777 (regenerated in 1999)
Governance	Glasgow City Council
Size	1.5 miles long
Boundary	Public access
Opening time	Open access
Nearest centre	Buchanan Galleries shopping centre, Glasgow Royal Theatre, St. Enoch shopping centre, Sauchiehall Street, Prince Square shopping centre

Name	**Kelvin Grove Park**
Location in the city	Urban area, west Glasgow
Main Function	Park, recreation, riverside walks
Services	Bandstand, skatepark, bowling and croquet greens, tennis court, various statues and monuments, children's play area
Established	1852
Governance	Glasgow City Council
Size	34 hectares
Boundary	Fenced, controlled entrance gate
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	Kelvingrove Art Gallery and Museum, Glasgow University, River Clyde

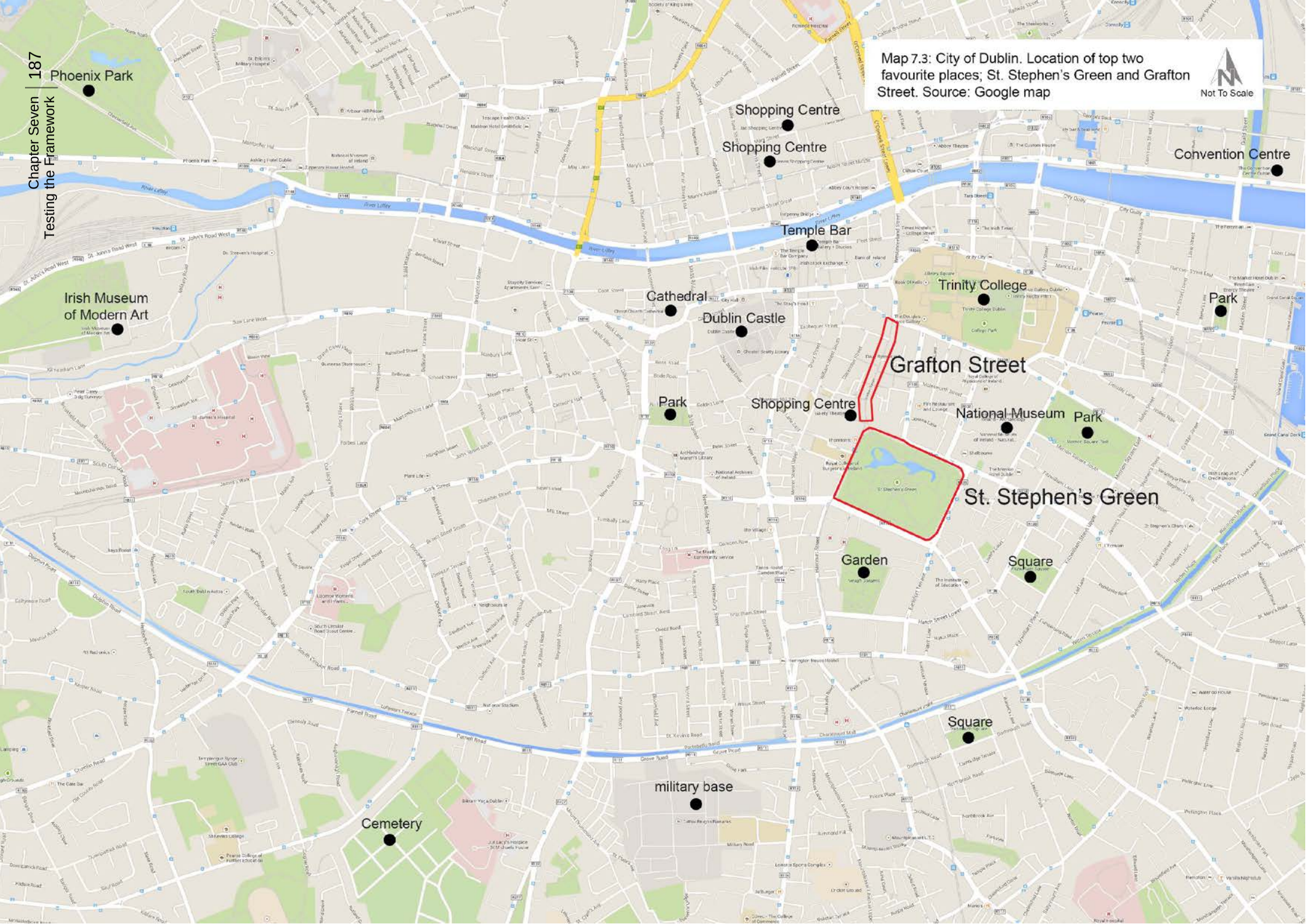


Map 7.2: City of Glasgow. Location of top two favourite places; Buchanan Street and Kelvingrove Park. Source: Google map

City: **Dublin (Map 7.3)** Selected places: **St. Stephen's Green and Grafton Street**

Name	**St. Stephen's Green Park**
Location in the city	City centre
Main Function	Park, recreation
Services	Bandstand, various statues and monument, children's playground, water fountain, pond
Established	1664 (reopened to public in 1880)
Governance	Office of Public Works (OPW)
Size	9 hectares
Boundary	Fenced, controlled gate
Entrance fee	Free
Opening time	07.30 am to sunset
Nearest centre	City centre, Grafton Street, shopping centre

Name	**Grafton Street**
Location in the city	City centre
Main function	Shopping area
Services	Pedestrianised shopping street
Established	1708
Governance	Dublin City Council
Size	400 m long
Boundary	Open
Opening time	24/7
Nearest centre	St. Stephens Green, Trinity College, Irish House of Parliament, River Liffey, Temple Bar



Map 7.3: City of Dublin. Location of top two favourite places; St. Stephen's Green and Grafton Street. Source: Google map

Not To Scale

7.5.1 First stage results: place type comparison

Further analysis was performed by identifying favourite places types in the three cities. Figure 7.2 illustrates a comparison across the place types in Iranian cities and the participants in Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin. The comparison shows strong similarities between the two.

%	Place types in the UK and Ireland
24.21	Park, Gardens
20.24	Market, Shopping centre, Shops
15.48	High street, Avenue
8.47	Waterfront (beach/riverside)
6.61	Historic public square
4.53	Museum, Music hall, Theatre, Cinema
3.97	Historic neighbourhood & monuments
3.70	Pub, Bar, Restaurant, Cafe
3.57	Sport facility
3.4	University, College, Library
1.98	Religious place
1.06	Playground, Entertainment area
97.22%	

Place types in Iran	%
Park, Gardens	32.27
High street, Avenue, Boulevard	17.92
Historic neighbourhood & monuments	15.73
Bazaar, Shopping centre, Ahops	10.09
Historic public square (Maidan)	4.92
Waterfront (seaside, riverside)	3.24
Modern neighbourhood	2.58
Religious place	2.52
Playground, Funfair	2.01
Restaurant, Coffee shop, …	1.75
University, School, Library	1.65
Sport facility	1.20
Museum, Cinema, Music hall	1.1
	96.98%

Figure 7.2: A comparison between place type in Iranian cities and England, Scotland and Ireland shows strong similarities. Place types with less than 1% of selection are not shown.

While ‘park’, with a high popularity in both participating groups, was selected at the top of the favourite place types, the rest of the place types are also follow the same trend in both groups. The only difference in the place types is ‘modern neighbourhood’ as it does not appear in the selection of people in UK and Ireland.

This result suggests that the factor of prime importance influencing people's choice of public places is not their culture or geographical location; when choices are available, people’s attitudes towards places in the public arena are largely similar. However, some cultural differences with a lower degree of importance are evident; ‘religious places’ are probably more important to Iranian people compared to the other sample group, or in contrast, places such as ‘museum, music hall, theatre and cinema’ have a higher degree of importance for participants from England, Scotland and Ireland. Although the differences could be a potential research idea, nevertheless, the recent culture-led regeneration that that the UK and Ireland have experienced might have had an impact on such selection of places.

Another result that emerges from the first stage is the participants' attitude towards their favourite places, when they were asked to express their reason for the selection of them. Figure 7.3 shows a comparison between the main reasons in both sample groups (more than 0.5%), with a strong correlation and similarities across them.

%	UK and Ireland (n=418)
9.3	Shopping
7.8	Walking
7.3	Nature
6.5	Play, exercise, football
6.4	View, vista
6.1	Relaxed, calm, peaceful
5.6	Water (river, canal, features)
4.2	Atmosphere, good feeling
4.1	Architecture, design
3.6	History, heritage
3.5	Close to home/work/shopping
3.4	Eating, restaurants, bars
3.4	Seating
3.2	Memories
3.1	Watching (birds, people…)
3.0	Diversity, busy, lively, everything I need
2.8	Meeting
2.3	Events
2.1	Accessible
2.0	Clean
1.5	Location, heart of the city (central)
1.3	Family day out
0.9	I know this place
0.9	Museum & art gallery
0.9	For boats
0.8	Live music
0.8	Sculptures
0.8	Flower stalls
0.8	No traffic, parking
0.8	Night lighting, night walk
99.2%	Total%

8 Iranian cities (n=3856)	%
Nature	8.7
Views, vista	7.3
Atmosphere, good feeling	7.3
Calmness, quiet, relaxed	6.2
Play, sport, exercise	5.8
Shopping	4.9
Close to home/work/bazaar/shopping	4.7
Maintenance, clean and tidy	4.5
History, originality, heritage	4.1
Location (best place in the city)	3.9
Water (sea, river, features)	3.6
Architecture, design	3.5
Walking	3.3
Memories	3.1
Feeling free, freedom	2.9
My knowledge about the place	2.8
Family picnic	2.4
Accessible	2.3
Safety	2.2
National identity, national pride	2.1
Meeting	2.0
Watching (other people, season)	1.9
For Hafez, fortune telling	1.9
Busy, lots to do, diversity	1.7
Seating, sheltered, pergola	1.5
Feeling happy	1.4
Eating, cafe, ice cream, restaurant	1.2
Nice at night, night walk	0.9
Museum, gallery, cultural activity	0.8
Free parking, plenty of car parks	0.8
Total%	99.7%

Figure 7.3: Comparison between the significant attributes of place which were expressed by the participants to describe their favourite places. Attributes which refer to similar qualities were grouped into a particular category.

The similarities are significantly greater than their differences; there are 25 common reasons which describe 93.6% of the responses in the UK and Ireland and 89.2% of the responses in Iranian cities.

Some of the reasons are at the personal or local level, such as 'for Hafez and fortune telling' which just applies to Shiraz, or 'for boats' which is related to Birmingham (Main Line Canal). As this research is focused on the common attributes across cultures these types of attributes have little impact on the result. In general the comparison confirms the great similarities across cultures.

Interestingly, ‘safety’ was never mentioned by the participants in the UK and Ireland yet it was a significant determinant for the selection of places in Iranian cities. Also, ‘national identity and national pride’ and ‘feeling free/freedom’ seem important issues for the Iranian participants. This demonstrates how public spaces occupy an important political position. Public spaces are displays of ‘national identity and national pride’; while this subject is beyond the scope of this research, it could be investigated in detail in a separate study.

7.6 Second stage results: the testing framework

The main purpose of this section is to analyse the new data in order to investigate the application of the proposed framework in different cultural settings, in this case UK and Ireland. The results from the first stage demonstrate a great similarity between the two studies in the Iranian cities and in the three cities of Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin. The results also identified the two most popular places in each city as the setting for the second survey.

Next, the proposed framework was empirically tested. Survey questionnaires were utilised and conducted in the two favourite places. The questionnaire comprises the structure of the proposed framework, including the main 27 attributes of place, as generated through factor analysis, based on data from Iranian cities (Chapter Six).

For the purpose of comparability between the two results (Iran and the UK/Ireland), the same analytical procedure was employed. Exploratory factor analysis was used for the analysis of the data, and data was screened and tested against standard criteria (Chapter Six) for its suitability for conducting factor analysis. The result of this analysis is presented as follows.

7.7 The testing framework

Following the proposed framework, six groups of attributes were generated by factor analysis. With the exception of two occasions of cross-dimensional loading (views and image), other attributes were loaded strongly into one group, presenting a strong correlation across the attributes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 7.4 illustrates the result of the analysis. The factor analysis and reliability analysis was carried out using SPSS (version 19), analysing 418 responses from the three cities of Birmingham, Glasgow and Dublin.

Table 7.4: Exploratory factor analysis extracted six dimensions (loadings (correlation values) of <0.4 are not reported).

Attributes of place	Birmingham, Glasgow and Dublin (3 cities, n=418)					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Functional dependence	.701					
Satisfaction	.692					
Meaning	.662					
Past experience	.651					
Identity of place	.541					
Design quality	.512					
Views and vista	.509					.519
Image and appearance	.504					.591
Relaxation		.889				
Appropriation		.880				
Psychosocial comfort		.836				
Personalisation		.771				
Physical comfort		.741				
Control			.777			
Physical activity			.761			
Physical distance (close)			.656			
Feeling safe			.647			
Nature			.628			
Discovery				.811		
Identity by place				.783		
Meeting place				.719		
Childhood memory					.822	
Emotional dependence					.728	
Familiarity					.700	
Watching						.820
Presence of others						.814
Presence of self						.812
Cronbach's alpha	**0.769**	**0.902**	**0.716**	**0.752**	**0.743**	**0.774**

7.7.1 Reliability

As in the original data, the reliability for each group was examined using Cronbach's alpha, which varied from 0.902 to 0.716 (Table 7.5). While the alpha value of 0.902 for Group 2 demonstrates the strongest internal consistency and reliability, the values of the other five groups are also above 0.7, which is a perfectly acceptable level of reliability (Nunnally, 1978; De Vaus, 2002a).

Table 7.5: Cronbach's alpha technique was applied to the factors derived from the factor analysis to test the internal consistency and reliability of the groups of attributes.

Group	Cronbach's alpha	Group	Cronbach's alpha
1	0.769	4	0.752
2	0.902	5	0.743
3	0.716	6	0.774

7.8 Refinement of the framework

The testing framework comprises six groups of attributes and describes the ranking order of the elements of place which was identified by the respondents. The importance of categories ranked by factor analysis was measured by the total of variances explained by each group, describing the influence of each dimension on the framework. Table 7.6 illustrates the ranking order by the percentage of the influence of each group on the framework.

Table 7.6: Hierarchical order of the six groups of attributes, defined by the percentage of variance that each group explains.

Groups	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	8.341	37.993	37.893	8.341	**37.993**	37.893	7.266
2	2.605	17.750	55.743	2.605	**17.750**	55.743	5.224
3	2.295	11.801	67.544	2.295	**11.801**	67.544	3.053
4	2.094	9.755	77.299	2.094	**9.755**	77.299	3.008
5	1.398	7.176	84.475	1.398	**7.176**	84.475	3.151
6	1.231	6.559	91.033	1.231	**6.559**	**91.033**	3.215

Six groups present 91% of the relationships within the testing framework. The first group explains 37.8% of the variance, meaning that this group of attributes has a high influence on the framework; the second group 17.7%, the third one 11.8%, and the fourth, fifth and sixth groups 9.7%, 7.1% and 6.5% respectively. It also explains the hierarchical interrelation across the groups of attributes.

The attributes allocated to the groups are also ranked in a hierarchical order by their loading values, describing the strength of correlation within their group; in this way the attributes with the most impact on the dimension are placed at the top.

7.8.1 Comparative analysis

A comparison between the two sets of results, the test results and the proposed framework, shows a strong correlation between the two. Most of the attributes are shown in the test results are in similar grouping systems, but not in the same hierarchical order.

For a better comparison and in order to highlight the similarities between the two sets of results, attributes were organised in the same order as the proposed framework. By doing this, a comparison revealed the extent to which they are similar.

Table 7.7 illustrates a clear comparison and shows a great similarity between the identical groups of attributes between the two sets of data. The colour coding helps with the identification of similar attributes. In total, 23 attributes are in exactly the same group and order.

Table 7.7: Comparison of the proposed framework and the testing result reveals great similarities across cultures.

	The proposed framework (Iranian cities)						The testing results in contrast cultures (England, Scotland & Ireland)					
Attributes of place	**8 cities n=4045**						**3 cities, n=418**					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Views and vista	.673						.509					.519
Satisfaction	.638						.692					
Design quality	.626						.512					
Image and appearance	.613						.504					.591
Functional dependence	.596						.701					
Past experience	.587						.651					
Meaning	.579				.537		.662					
Nature	.562		.553						.628			
Identity of place	.518						.541					
Psychosocial comfort		.814						.836				
Appropriation		.812						.880				
Relaxation		.683						.889				
Personalisation		.572						.771				
Feeling safe		.534							.647			
Control			.798						.777			
Physical activity			.787						.761			
Physical comfort			.645					.741				
Discovery				.754						.811		
Meeting place				.651						.719		
Identity of place				.640						.783		
Childhood memory					.717						.822	
Emotional dependence					.697						.728	
Familiarity					.602						.700	
Physical distance (close)					.570				.656			
Watching						.876						.820
Presence of self						.862						.812
Presence of others						.526						.814

In further comparisons of the contribution of each group of attributes to the framework, both sets of data also illustrate a complete match. Table 7.8 shows the percentages of each group of attributes. As described earlier in Chapter Six, the total variance of each group of attributes explains how much of the information of the framework (or the concept under investigation) is explained by that group, or by the total attributes in the framework.

Therefore it can be said that the hierarchy of the importance of the attributes is also the same for the both sets of data.

Table 7.8: A comparison of the contribution of each group of attributes of place within both sets of results shows a similar hierarchical order.

Group of attributes	Contribution of each group to the framework (%)	
	Proposed framework (Iranian cities)	Test result (England, Scotland & Ireland)
1	39.3%	37.9%
2	18.3%	17.7%
3	10.6%	11.8%
4	9.9%	9.7%
5	7.5%	7.1%
6	6.9%	6.5%

In order to refine the framework into a generic one, the research needs to compare the data analysis and adjust the proposed framework to reflect the common attributes across cultures. By doing so, this research also responds to one of its most important objectives, to investigate the cultural similarities in the experience of place, and consequently achieves the aim of the research by developing a framework containing the generic attributes of place, which can be used to analyse places in the public arena of cities, independent from culture.

7.9 A generic framework for place

The aim of this research was to generate a cross-cultural generic framework for place, which is applicable to places in the public arena of cities. To achieve such a framework and follow a testing process, the research retained all the attributes. The significance of groups and attributes were in a similar ranking order in both sets of data, validating the framework as applicable to different settings. In this context, the first group of attributes with nine attributes has the most influence on the analysis of place and carries most of the information of the framework.

As the two sets of results were collected from participants and settings with contrasting and distinct cultural and geographical backgrounds, it is therefore pertinent to claim that the research succeeded in identifying common attributes across cultures, and consequently, if a framework is developed based on those attributes, it can be said that such a framework is generic across the cultures studied.

Finally, Figure 7.4 presents a graphic illustration of the framework and the generic attributes of places in the public arena of cities. The attributes are ranked by their correlational relationships and importance across all sample cities of both data collections.

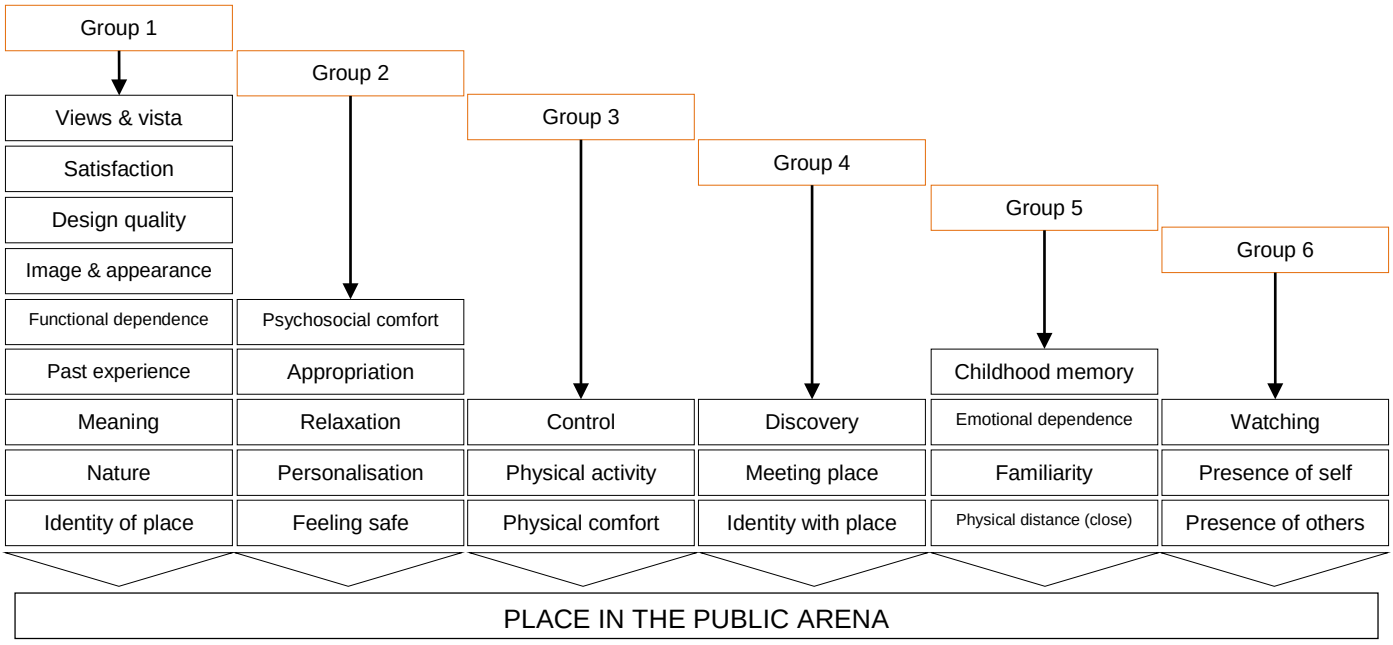


Figure 7.4: A generic framework for place.

7.10 Summary and conclusions

The main objective of this chapter was to test the framework and its applicability in a different cultural setting. In order to achieve that, the proposed framework of place, which was developed by using the data from eight Iranian cities, was tested in the three cities of Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin, which contrast with Iranian cities in terms of culture and geographical location.

A comparative analysis between the two sets of data illustrated great similarities between responses from both data collections. A comparison between the proposed framework and the testing data identified common attributes across cultures, and finally, a framework for place, which is believed could present the generic attributes of place across cultures, was validated. To sum up the findings of this chapter, the overall results are presented as follows.

7.10.1 Commonalities across cultures

The main research question was to investigate whether there are any similarities in the attributes of place in the public arena of cities across cultures. The result from comparative studies revealed that there are great correlations and commonalities across them. Twenty-five common reasons for the selection of places were found, describing

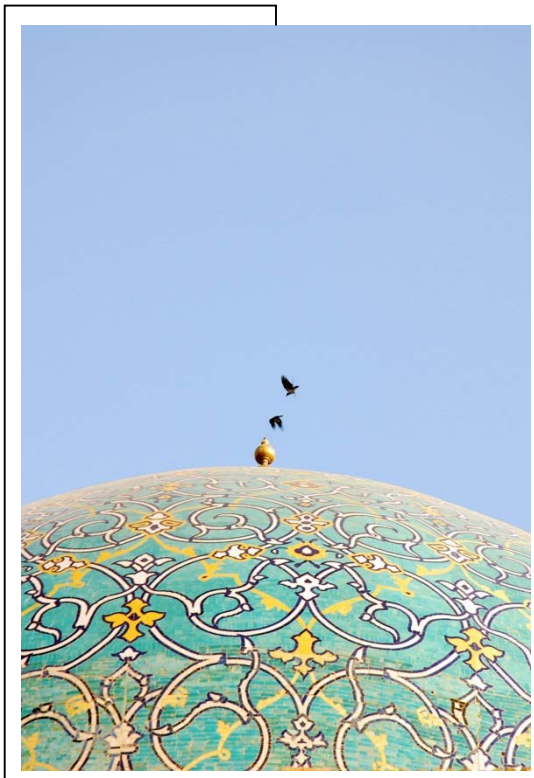
93.6% of the responses in Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin and 89.2% of the responses in the Iranian cities.

The similarity across both sample groups was further confirmed by testing the framework. Six groups of attributes were statistically analysed and found almost identical with the original data from Iranian cities. In comparison with the original data, and from the 27 attributes tested, only four of them were ranked differently, with 23 of them having the same grouping and ranking order.

7.10.2 A generic framework for place in the public arena of cities

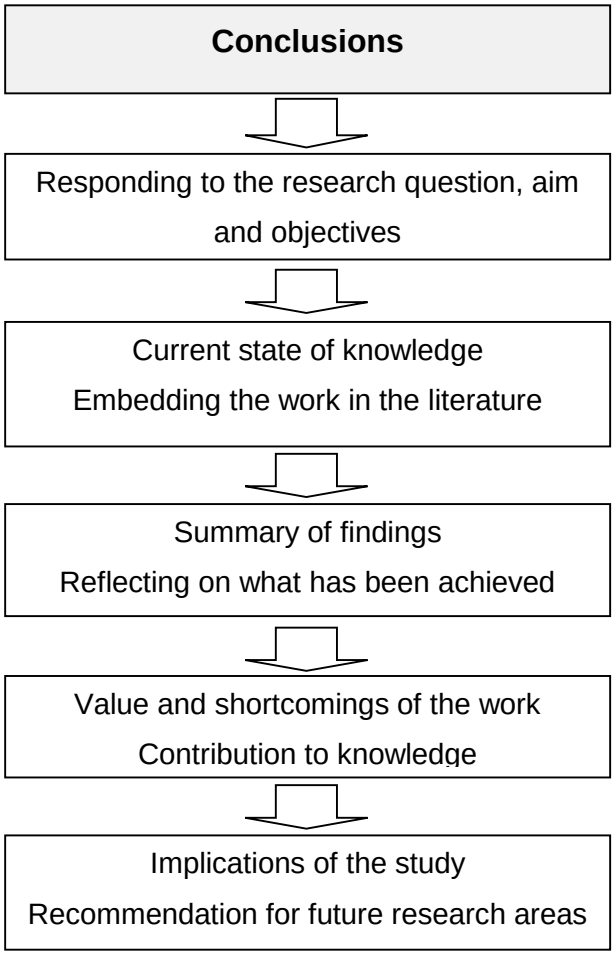
The study aimed to generate a generic framework for the analysis of place in the public arena of cities. It was intended that a framework which is independent from culture could be applied to any public places. Therefore, if the framework includes common attributes across varieties of cultures, it could be recognised as generic across the cultures studied. Therefore, the framework, which was successfully tested and presented in this chapter, is able to respond to the aim of this research.

The next chapter will be concerned with the summarising the findings of the research, and the appraisal of the main proposition of the study. The chapter will briefly assess the research methodology and concludes with a brief speculation on the use of this study in academia and practice and future research.



Conclusions

Chapter 8: Conclusions



8.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to develop a generic framework for analysing places in cities. The focus was the identification of commonalities across cultures and the common attributes that examine cultural similarities of places in the public arena of cities. Given that each chapter of this thesis includes a summary and conclusion section, this chapter is organised to focus on the major findings of the research concerning the research question, aim and objectives. Furthermore, the implications of this study, contributions and future research are discussed.

8.2 Responding to the research question, aim and objectives

A review of the research question, aim and objectives, and comparison with the results achieved, will help to produce a clear conclusion. In brief, the main research question was:

> **Are there cross-cultural similarities in the attributes of place in the public arena of cities?**

The aim of the research was:

> **To develop a generic framework for analysing places in the public arena of cities.**

To achieve the aim and to answer to the research question as a basis for the inquiry, the following objectives were developed:

1. **To explore theoretical approaches to the study of place;**
2. **To identify the main attributes of place in the public arena of cities;**
3. **To develop a methodology to examine the main attributes of place in different cultural settings;**
4. **To identify the interrelationship and hierarchy of attributes within favourite places;**
5. **To validate the generic applicability of the framework.**

8.2.1 Responding to the research question

In response to the research question, the study concentrated on the identification of the main attributes of place through a literature review and an exploration of people's attitudes towards their favourite places by asking them for their reason for the selection of such places. The review of relevant literature, from a multidisciplinary perspective,

revealed that there are 45 key attributes of place that disciplines have used to explore place in the public domain (Chapters Two and Three).

The result of the empirical investigation clearly found that the attributes related to public places are largely common across the diversity of participants: these included both the reasons for selection of favourite places and for the main attributes of place. A significant level of commonalities was identified, with 93.6% of the responses in England, Scotland and Ireland and 89.2% of the responses in Iran agreeing on 25 of the reasons. Further, testing the framework also found significant correlation across samples from Iran and the testing settings, which showed that not only the attributes are common but the relative importance of them in each setting is also very similar.

8.2.2 Responding to the research aim

The study began with the concept that places in cities are platforms for direct human experience and people from different communities experience places which might be dissimilar to the place where they come from. In this context, traditionally, many researchers have approached the study of places and spaces in cities primarily with theories and methods which are based on a kind of scientific observation. They have mainly evaluated the objective qualities of the physical environment and have wanted to know how the meaning of place could be associated with specific locations and ultimately with people's specific behaviours in those places. Based on this approach, places are particular to their location, culture and community, and therefore, generic principles cannot be established: places can only be analysed on a case-by-case basis (a variety of examples are available, e.g.: Williams *et al.* (1992), Moore & Graefe (1994), Mitchell *et al.* (1993), Hull *et al.* (1994), Stokowski (2002), Jorgensen & Stedman (2001), Stedman (2003), Kyle *et al.* (2004), Hammitt *et al.* (2009)). These studies, on the one hand, are likely to minimise analyses of place to limited aspects of a more complex continuum of place relations, and on the other, are largely based on limited theoretical perspectives and the professional boundaries of the researchers.

Addressing the above issues, this research therefore aimed to develop a framework which, firstly, investigates places across different types of urban environment and, secondly, explores the associated qualities of places that people collectively want to see in their favourite places. Ultimately, the research generated a detailed framework for place which contains shared attributes of place across a variety of settings. The framework could potentially be utilised to analyse places regardless of any particular location, culture and community.

8.2.3 Responding to the research objectives

In response to the first objective, the theoretical approaches to the study of place were explored from the perspectives of four main bodies of knowledge: philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology. In this context, the conceptualisation of place is largely subjected to the influence of competing opinions of different disciplines. This is because of the multidimensional nature and the diversity of disciplines and professions involved in the study and practice of place and placemaking. At the theoretical level, each discipline defines place and its attributes in accordance with a particular conceptualisation, each from a viewpoint which they have derived. On a conceptual level, all disciplines support the view that the study of place in the public arena should respect three main dimensions – social, spatial and symbolic – as guiding points to illustrate the comprehensive picture of place and to conceptualise its multilayered and complex character.

The identification of the main attributes of place was the response to the second objective. Forty-five attributes were identified: some of these were common between disciplines and some were used by one discipline only. In order to develop a comprehensive theoretical basis for the research, an accumulation of all the main attributes were utilised to form the framework.

In response to the third objective, the research developed a method of investigation to handle the complexity of the subject and thus to achieve the research aim. The importance of the methodology is threefold: a) the practical application of a mixed-methods approach to ensure alignment of both quantitative and qualitative data to the central research aim and question; b) the synthesis and statistical analysis of multiple sources of data related to respondents' perceptions and the main attributes of place; and c) the implementation of a reliable and valid sampling technique across a variety of settings. In response to the fourth objective, a quantitative data collection and correlation analysis was employed to explore the hierarchical interrelationship of the attributes. Finally the proposed framework was tested and validated.

Detailed descriptions of theoretical issues arising from the literature review and findings of the research are summarised as follows.

8.3 Theoretical issues in the current literature

A review of the literature was carried out to explore the current state of knowledge and theoretical approaches to the study of places in urban settings. The core issues are summarised into five interrelated areas of concern, as follows:

1. Many theoretical disciplines, including philosophy, geography, built environment and psychology, are in some way concerned with place. While place may appear a straightforward concept, it resists simple definition and is increasingly affected by a whole range of subjective influences, including emotional dependence, identity and attachment. Despite the fact that the importance of place and its integral role in everyday human life has been highlighted by all the disciplines studied, their different theoretical and methodological approaches to the study of place can make them incapable of providing a comprehensive picture. From this point of view, each discipline has its own definition of place, whereas an interdisciplinary approach may offer a more comprehensive analysis of the nature of place.
2. Much of the existing literature is focused on concepts of ‘place’ and ‘space’ to such an extent that they are often confused. In this view, there is more theoretical conceptualisation concerned with space rather than place, and often place has been subordinated and linked to the concept of space, which instigates the confusion between the two concepts.
3. While place is more than merely a spatial entity, it also involves dimensions of social and symbolic relationships, yet the assertion that place can be defined by a combination of social, spatial and symbolic labels overlooks the underlying attributes that define the qualities of place.
4. Many previous theoretical conceptualisations of place (e.g. Canter, Relph, Tuan, Montgomery and Punter) have interpreted place in a simplistic way. They commonly simplify the complexity of place and put it at the intersection of three components: activity, environment and meaning. However, these theoretical conceptualisations often do not provide sufficiently detailed accounts of place, thus resulting in less accurate analysis. Furthermore, simplistic labelling could potentially neglect the underlying attributes that define the qualities of place and make it difficult to show the importance of interrelationships between the attributes.
5. Research into public places has often been focused on single-case studies as isolated examples rather than as part of a wider framework. This could be because these studies often set out to obtain specific information about a specific issue related

to a specific place. The alternative is to apply a wider generic framework which can provide a better understanding of general issues of place.

8.3.1 Embedding the work in the literature

The discussion presented in this research began with the criticism that much of the existing research on places in the public arena of cities has been carried out to obtain specific information about a specific issue, perhaps at the behest of policymakers or urban managers, and subsequently the single-case study has been the preferred method of research. Reflecting on the reviewed literature, research on the quality of urban environment has focused on a single aspect of place, for example on publicness of place (Arefi & Meyers, 2003; De Magalhaes, 2010), livablity (Ewing & Clemente, 2013) or walkability (Ewing & Handy, 2009; Adkins *et al.*, 2012); or visual evaluation (Forsyth *et al.*, 2010) and vitality (Montgomery, 1998; Townshend & Madanipour, 2008), as well as numerous examples of place-specific research on place-based concepts such as attachment (Kyle *et al.*, 2005, Brown & Raymond, 2007; Gosling *et al.*, 2010; Raymond *et al.*, 2010), sense of place (Turner & Turner, 2006), place identity (Butina Watson & Bentley, 2007; Fleury-Bahi *et al.*, 2008), place bonding and place dependence (Hammit *et al.*, 2009) and place memory (Lewicka, 2008; Rishbeth & Powell, 2012).

A key aspect of this study is its interdisciplinary approach to the analysis of place and the source of data. Most of the research projects mentioned above and their analytical tools have been constrained in some degree by their disciplinary boundaries (discussed in Chapter Two). Often the disciplinary approach dictates the specific phenomena of interest and issues of concern which consequently dictate the source of data. These systematic variations across disciplines define distinct perspectives on the analysis of place; for example, the work by Ewing *et al.* (2009, 2013) on urban design qualities in the public realm. Drawing on mainly urban design literature they identify 51 attributes of the built environment which were presumed to influence people's decisions on and preferences of places. Further, by employing a panel of ten urban design and planning experts from professional practice as well as academia, they select eight qualities for further study, and finally the five qualities of imageability, enclosure, human scale, transparency and complexity were validated through a rating system by the same expert panel. In contrast, the interdisciplinary approach in this thesis utilised an extensive data collection which offered both comprehensive and detailed analysis of respondents' preferences as the main source of data, so that the final framework was not reliant on specific locations or limited to specific groups of users or experts.

The results also confirm the assertion made by a number of authors (Madanipour, 1999, Carmona *et al.*, 2010; Carr *et al.*, 1992; Gehl & Gemzoe, 1996, Gehl, 2010) that the physical presence of places, on its own, cannot carry meaning. It is the addition of the emotional capacity of places, and the social-psychological capacity of the users to assign such meaning to them, that symbolise them beyond just image and appearance. The findings also confirm the idea that focusing on the visual system has often resulted in placemaking being simply concerned with physical improvements (Arefi & Triantafillou, 2005; Degen, 2008). However, this research proposes that the problem is not only the poor quality of physical environments but the lack of understanding of the concept of place, not as a commodity but as a series of experiences. Urban designers and others in related professions have produced many innovative design solutions and tools to help capture place. Yet, they record and portray the visual elements as the primary goal, although this emphasis can lead to misconstrued ideals of placemaking. In this respect, the results of the research have revealed the significant role of non-physical and social aspects and associational meanings of environment as a key component of urban places. Using Lynch's (1960) definition of imageability, the results show while the views and vista of place is the most important attribute for the participants, features such as satisfaction, familiarity, memories and meanings, accounting for the imageability of places are at least as important as the physical features. Also, the important role of emotional attachment and identity in the image of place cannot be overemphasised. As a result, the research challenges the early definition of 'imageability' as the 'quality in a physical object which gives it a high probability of evoking a strong image in a given observer' (Lynch, 1960: 9), and posits imageability of place as a product of both physical, perceptual attributes as well as non-physical, associational characteristics of the urban environment. This finding calls for a certain approach to placemaking beyond geometric and spatial dimensions, i.e. a holistic design approach which would embrace not only the physical properties but also the meanings and sense of place.

Furthermore, the results of the research imply that the kind of 'quality of life' supported by public places, and particularly the responsiveness of the environment to the generic basic needs of the community, rather than aesthetic needs, have an important role to play in generating positive conceptions of places. The inquiry has shown that 'needs', as perceived by the respondents, were from the basic needs category, including public facilities, particularly recreational facilities such as places for activity, greenery, and places for watching and meeting others. In fact, basic urban problems such as dirtiness and a lack of upkeep, and the inadequacy of basic urban facilities, as well as the

unfavourable socio-cultural climate of places, adversely affected the way the respondents had experienced, conceived and evaluated their favourite places.

8.4 Summary of findings

As a result of an extensive collection of data (n=8670) through a two-stage survey in eight Iranian cities, a generic framework for the analysis of place in the public arena of cities was generated. The cross-cultural applicability of the framework was tested in the cities of Glasgow, Birmingham and Dublin. The salient findings of the study are as follows:

The research identified a number of common attributes across participants. This suggests that the study of place is not isolated and specific to certain locations. The generated framework of place could be utilised as a basis for an inclusive study of public places in cities, independent of location, culture and community.

A key feature of the framework is the illustration of interrelationship across the attributes and their hierarchical structure. This is particularly significant as none of the current models of place provide such a detailed categorisation. The framework illustrates the multilayered interaction between six groups of attributes and provides a detailed account of their degree of significance. The hierarchical relationships within the groups and across the groups of the attributes could be seen as a major step towards a more accurate analysis of place.

The results of this study also offer further clarity to the current theoretical debate on the concept of place. In this context, place is the result of the interaction between social, spatial and symbolic characteristics of the urban environment; place is made through the experience of this environment, and in a holistic approach to the analysis of place, consideration should be given to all three conceptual characteristics of place.

8.4.1 Reflecting on what has been achieved

A review of the literature has identified a number of key attributes that can contribute to the analysis of public places (Chapters Two and Three); but there has been little empirical research into how they are experienced in different contexts (Carmona, 2013) and a lack of cross-cultural perspective (Marcus & Francis, 1997, p.8). Scant research has also been carried out into empirical identification of the key attributes of place in a cross-cultural context and their degrees of impact, as well as their hierarchical

relationship with the places they address. This was a clear gap in the existing literature that this study has been able to tackle.

The overall aim of this research was to develop a generic framework for analysing places in the public arena of cities. In order to achieve the generic applicability of the framework, the attributes identified were examined in diverse geographic locations and cultures. This allowed the research to investigate those attributes which were common across cultures and, consequently, the thesis has shown that places in the public realm can be defined through an array of interrelated generic attributes rather than any specific measure dependent on a specific culture and location.

The results of this study, while applicable to the development and enrichment of urban design and placemaking theory, also provide a better understanding of public spaces and people's perceptions, which helps to provide knowledge for built environment professionals. Therefore, what has been achieved by this research may be understood as a twofold contribution to the literature and to urban design and placemaking practice. The thesis expands on previous studies. For example, it has been suggested that the public are more interested in the image, views and appearance of place (PPS, 2013; Sitte, 1965 [1889]; Cullen, 1971, Gehl *et al.*, 2006) and feel pleased and satisfied (Canter, 1969; Lowental and Riel, 1972) in places which provide comfort (Gehl, 2010), are connected to nature (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989, 1998, 2011; Kahn, 1999) and meet their functional needs (Jones & Cloke, 2002; Clayton & Opotow, 2003; Spartz & Shaw, 2011).

The findings of this research also enhance the previous conceptualisation of place (e.g. Tuan, 1977; Relph, 1976; Canter, 1977; Punter, 1991; Montgomery, 1988), while these frameworks identify place broadly as the interaction between the three components of activities, physical attributes, and conception and meaning – the components have never been empirically validated and they lack detail. In response, the findings of this research provided a further development by offering more detail and further depth to the analysis of place and suggest that by using the generic attributes, the analysis of place relating to public spaces could be independent from culture and location.

The results of this study also offer further clarity to the current theoretical debate on the concept of place. In this context, place is the result of the interaction between social, spatial and symbolic characteristics of the urban environment. Therefore, in a holistic approach to the analysis of place, consideration should be given to all three conceptual characteristics of place. This is in line with the argument raised by Madanipour (2006,

2010b), who reflects on the nature of the experience of place. He calls for reliable evaluative tools to assess different aspects of public places, especially in relation to cultural diversity.

Another important achievement of this study is the validation of the framework in different contexts and cultures (discussed in Chapter Seven). The results show a significant correlation between the key attributes of place in Iranian cities and those in the UK and Ireland. The analysis shows that, despite ethnic, cultural and geographical differences, people approach place in the public arena of cities in a similar manner and the commonalities across cultures are far greater than their differences. Therefore, the framework can be used for the analysis of places irrespective of location.

8.5 Value and shortcomings of the work

It is suggested that the idea of a generic framework and its hierarchical structure makes a significant contribution to literature and practice. The framework can build a strong bridge to those social sciences in which there is frequently little consideration of place and can help academics to make sure that they cover all the key aspects of place in their studies.

One important aspect of this research is the inclusion of a diversity of western and non-western cultures. Therefore, the framework, as a representation of shared attributes of place, irrespective of location, could be used as a communication format to facilitate cross-cultural dialogue. In this respect, while the framework is useful for research and theoretical discussion, it may also be relevant to urban design and placemaking practice. The framework could be incorporated into a variety of analytical toolkits including Placecheck (Cowan, 2000), urban design audit and score sheet (Ewing *et al.*, 2005; Clemente *et al.*, 2005), urban design inventory (Alfonzo *et al.*, 2005; Day *et al.*, 2006), design workshop and Charrette (Sarkissian *et al.*, 1994; Sanoff, 2000; Lennertz & Lutzenhiser, 2006) amongst others, or within an approach using more than one of these tools. In asserting the importance of the common attributes of place and the generic applicability of the framework, Forsyth *et al.* (2010) evaluate six methods of assessment and conclude that public places 'have to work for multiple publics' (p.45). Therefore, while the methods are different in their emphases, successful places share many similar characteristics.

In reflecting on the research methods, one of the strengths is that the representative sample in this study of more than 8000 is relatively large when compared with many

other studies cited earlier. Also, this research engaged the participants in the sampling process (a kind of snowballing) to select the research settings for the second stage. In this process the research did not rely on researcher insight, third-party data (such as from a local authority or an expert panel) or other secondary data. Nevertheless, while mixed methods and questionnaires were employed successfully to overcome possible methodological shortcomings, following the completion of the study it appeared that it could have benefited from additional qualitative data on attitudes and behavioural aspects through in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. In particular, detailed study of groups of people in their personal relationship with place, day-to-day experience and patterns of activity within their favourite places could have provided valuable qualitative data concerning different aspects of their everyday experience of place and enriched the framework. Also, the framework was derived from and tested in a limited range of places. It is therefore anticipated that the more it is tested in different cultural and geographical contexts, the more robust it will become. Thus, further testing has already been scheduled in Malaysia and Italy for 2014–15.

8.6 Contributions to knowledge

This thesis has made a contribution to the body of ‘placemaking’ literature in the context of urban design. In particular, the study was able to challenge the assertion found in so much of the literature that places are particular to their location, and therefore generic principles cannot be established and places can only be analysed on a case-by-case basis. The thesis presented a considerable amount of data to show that, in the analysis of places in the public arena of cities, a number of attributes are applicable regardless of any particular location, culture or community. Following on from that, the contribution this thesis has sought to make is to propose an alternative method of place analysis, to produce places with strong potential for success, which draw on generic attributes of place and their hierarchical relationship.

The study offers a new perspective for thinking about places in the public arena of cities by revisiting the main attributes of place through an integrated interdisciplinary viewpoint. The study investigated the identification of generic attributes of public places in cities as they are conceived and valued by participants from various cities across diverse cultures. Furthermore, it has obtained some valuable parameters for the design and analysis of public places by highlighting the importance of the situation of public place in cross-cultural contexts.

8.7 Implications of the study

This study opens up a new dialogue in both theoretical and empirical studies, and highlights the need for further research within the scope of cross-cultural studies, and specifically in the design of public places in cities.

Within the wider context, this research highlights the importance of comparative studies of places. Such studies can reveal similarities and differences across communities, leading to a better understanding of placemaking and its impact on different aspects of urban studies such as urban design, planning and management of the urban environment.

The hierarchical relationship of attributes is particularly important, because not all the attributes could be incorporated into all places. Public places come with various degrees of social or spatial restriction; in this case the quality of places could be enhanced by including the attributes which are more important than others.

8.8 Recommended future research areas

1. Further testing in a greater range of settings may improve the framework, and future research in different parts of the world is recommended to enhance its generic applicability.
2. Some of the attributes of the framework are conceptually complex, such as satisfaction, emotional dependence, identity and memory. Further research could explore these attributes and their detailed structure to enhance the framework.
3. The proposed framework highlighted the importance of the design quality of places; therefore, additional research may be able to examine common physical and morphological characteristics across cultures.
4. Part of any future research could deal with probing the ways in which the generic framework of place could be practically incorporated into placemaking practice. The framework could therefore be developed as a toolkit for the analysis of existing places, or for the evaluation of new developments.

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Appendix A1

Sample of questionnaires in Farsi used for the main data collection.

پرسشنامه (۱)

پاسخ دهنده عزیز:

با تشکر از همکاری شما در پاسخگویی به سوالات زیر،هدف از این تحقیق شناسایی و بررسی نظریات و تجربیات شما در رابطه با استفاده و ساخت مکانهای درون شهری در حوزه عمومی و نهایتاً دستیابی به ابزاری برای طراحان، برنامه ریزان و تصمیم گیران در حوزه شهرسازی برای درک و ساخت فضاهای شهری با کیفیت و مطلوبیت بیشتر می باشد.

ما امیدواریم که شما صادقانه به سوالات زیر پاسخ دهید تا انشا... نتیجه این تحقیق بتواند نیازهای شما را در این حوزه به جامعه علمی و تخصصی منتقل نماید تا در خدمت بهبود وضعیت طراحی و کیفیت فضاهای عمومی قرار گیرد.این مطالعه به شکل پایان نامه دکتری و مجموعه مقالات علمی در ایران و جهان منتشر خواهد شد. این تحقیق با همکاری شرکت مادر تخصصی عمران و بهسازی شهری ایران و دانشگاه نورثامبریا (انگلستان) انجام می شود. لازم به ذکر است که کلیه اطلاعات حاصل از این پرسشنامه کاملاً محرمانه بوده و تحت هیچ شرایطی در اختیار هیچ فرد یا موسسه ای قرار نخواهد گرفت.در پایان اگر تمایل به دریافت نتایج این مطالعه دارید لطفاً به ایمیل زیر تماس حاصل فرمایید.
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متشکرم

مصاحبه کننده: ...
تاریخ مصاحبه: ...
زمان شروع: ... زمان خاتمه: ...
محل مصاحبه: ...

مشخصات عمومی پاسخگو:

سن: ... جنس: ...
موقعیت شغلی: ...
تحصیلات: ...
شهر محل سکونت اصلی: ...

۱- لطفاً دو فضای عمومی و یا هرمکان دیگر واقع در محدوده شهرتان که بیشتر از جاهای دیگر دوست دارید را نام ببرید.(a-b)

لطفاً دو دلیل ذکر بفرمائید که چرا شما این مکانها را دوست دارید.(۲-۱)

a. ...
1. ...
2. ...

b. ...
1. ...
2. ...

پرسشنامه (۲)

پاسخ دهنده عزیز:

با تشکر از همکاری شما در پاسخگویی به سوالات زیر بهدف از این تحقیق شناسایی و بررسی نظریات و تجربیات شما در رابطه با استفاده و ساخت مکانهای درون شهری در حوزه عمومی و نهایتاً دستیابی به ابزاری برای طراحان برنامه ریزان و تصمیم گیران در حوزه محیط شهرسازی برای درک و ساخت فضاهای شهری با کیفیت و مطلوب میسر می باشد.

ما امیدواریم که شما صادقانه به سوالات زیر پاسخ دهید تا انشاء... نتیجه این تحقیق بتواند یاریگر شما را در این حوزه به جامعه علمی و تخصصی منتقل نماید تا در خدمت بهبود وضعیت طراحی و کیفیت فضاهای عمومی قرار گیرد.این مطالعه به شکل پایان نامه دکتری و مجموعه مقالات علمی در ایران و جهان منتشر خواهد شد. این تحقیق با همکاری اشرکت مادر تخصصی عمران و بهسازی شهری ایران و دانشگاه نورد(نروژ) انجام می شود. لازم به ذکر است که کلیه اطلاعات حاصل از این پرسشنامه کاملاً محرمانه بوده و تحت هیچ شرایطی در اختیار هیچ فرد یا موسسه ای قرار نخواهد گرفت. در پایان اگر تمایل به دریافت نتایج این مطالعه دارید لطفاً به ایمیل زیر تماس حاصل فرمایید.

mohammadi.reyhan@yazd.ac.ir

متشکرم

مصاحبه کننده: .....

تاریخ مصاحبه: .....

زمان شروع و خاتمه: .....

محل مصاحبه: .....

شهر محل سکونت اصلی: .....

مشخصات عمومی پاسخگو:

سن: ..... **جنس:** .....

موقعیت شغلی: .....

تحصیلات: .....

	لطفاً این مکان را با پاسخگویی به سوالات زیر ارزیابی بفرمائید	کاملاً موافقم ۵	کمی موافقم ۴	بی تفاوتم ۳	کمی مخالفم ۲	کاملاً مخالفم ۱
۱.	از ظهر آن خوشم می آید	✓				
۲.	اینجا جای کافی برای حرکت،جدب و خوش و راه رفتن است	✓				
۳.	می توانم دیگران را ببینم		✓			
۴.	دیگران می توانند مرا ببینند		✓			✓
۵.	چشم انداز خوبی دارد	✓				
۶.	می توانم در کنار دیگران باشم			✓		
۷.	می توانم در تنهایی خودم باشم	✓				
۸.	احساس آسایش می کنم آفتابی	✓				
۹.	احساس راحتی می کنم	✓				
۱۰.	من در همه جای این فضا احساس راحتی و آرامش می کنم	✓				
۱۱.	من فقط یک جای این فضا احساس راحتی و آرامش می کنم					✓
۱۲.	اینجا های خوبی برای نشستن دارد	✓				
۱۳.	اینجا جای خوبی برای یک تیک یا خانواده است					✓
۱۴.	اینجا جای خوبی برای تحرکات ورزشی است	✓				
۱۵.	براحتی قابل دسترسی است	✓				
۱۶.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون به محل زندگیم نزدیک است	✓				
۱۷.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون به محل زندگیم دور است					✓
۱۸.	احساس امنیت می کنم در روز	✓				
۱۹.	احساس امنیت می کنم در شب		✓			
۲۰.	اینجا از باد و بارش و سرما در امان هستم	✓				
۲۱.	آمدن به اینجا کار هر روز من است	✓				
۲۲.	احساس می کنم به طبیعت نزدیکم	✓				
۲۳.	از وقتی بادم می آید اینجا را دیده ام		✓			
۲۴.	اینجا احساس می کنم با دیگران فرق دارم			✓		
۲۵.	اینجا احساس خوشحالی می کنم		✓			
۲۶.	خاطرات خوشی از این مکان دارم					
۲۷.	این محل مرا به یاد جاهایی از گذشته ام می اندازد	✓				
۲۸.	خاطرات کودکیم را به یادم میآورد	۰				✓
۲۹.	این محل بطور خاص برای من مهم است	✓				
۳۰.	اینجا یکی از محل مهم برای من است	✓				
۳۱.	اینجا قسمتی از تاریخ شهر است	✓				
۳۲.	اینجا می توانم هر چقدر که می خواهم بمانم	✓				
۳۳.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون خیلی تمیز است	✓				
۳۴.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون خیلی زیبا است	✓				
۳۵.	من منازه و خیابانهای اطراف اینجا را دوست دارم	۰				✓
۳۶.	می توانم درون این فضا پرسه بزنم بدون اینکه گم شوم	✓				
۳۷.	این بهترین محل برای دیدن و شناختن دوستان جدید است		✓			
۳۸.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون هر بار که می آیم اینجا چیز تازه پیدا می کنم	۰				✓
۳۹.	وقتی اینجا هستم احساس می کنم اینجا مال خود من است	✓				
۴۰.	اینجا خوب است چون شلوغ و پر سر و صدا است		✓			
۴۱.	اینجا خوب است چون خلوت و ساکت است	✓				
۴۲.	اینجا را دوست دارم چون جای خوبی از شهر قرار دارد	✓				
۴۳.	من اینجا را بخاطر وسایل و تجهیزات شهری لذیذش دوست دارم			✓		
۴۴.	من اینجا را بخاطر وسایل و تجهیزات شهری نو و مدرنش دوست دارم			✓		
۴۵.	ای کاش می توانستم یک جا را انطور که دلم میخواهد بسازم	✓				

Appendix A2

Sample of questionnaires in English, used for testing the framework.

QUESTIONNAIRE (2)

Dear respondent

This survey is part of a PhD study (funded by Northumbria University, UK) and aims to find out:

- The type of places that people like most in their city
- The assessment of key attributes of successful places
- The reasons for the selection of such a place
- The relationship between people and place

If you are interested to have more information and the results of this study, please email me at:
mohammad.radfar@northumbria.ac.uk

Thank you
Mohammad Radfar

Interviewer ..... MR .....
Date of interview ..... 18/11 .....
Time start ..17.20.. Time end .....
Place of interview ..... St Stephens Green .....
General description of the respondent:
Age ..... 42 ..... Gender ..... F .....
City of residence ..... Dublin .....

Please assess this place by answering to the following statements:		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1.	I can have my own spot	✓				
2.	Good childhood memory		✓			
3.	I am in control		✓			
4.	Good design (Architecture and landscape)	✓				
5.	Always find something new here		✓			
6.	I am very attached to this place	✓				
7.	I know it very well	✓				
8.	I feel safe at all time		✓			
9.	It is best place for what I like to do		✓			
10.	I feel like here is part of my identity	✓				
11.	It is a landmark for the city	✓				
12.	Good image and appearance	✓				
13.	It has a special meaning to me		✓			
14.	Good for meeting friends	✓				
15.	I am close to nature	✓				
16.	Past experience	✓				
17.	I can be by myself (without disturbance)	✓				
18.	Play, exercise and leisure activities		✓			
19.	I feel comfortable (seats etc.)	✓	✓			
20.	Close to where I live/work	✓				
21.	To be around other people				✓	
22.	I can be seen by others		✓			
23.	I feel mentally calm	✓				
24.	I feel relaxed	✓				
25.	I enjoy and feel happy		✓			
26.	Good views	✓				
27.	I can see others		✓			

Please remember this questionnaire is for the research purposes only and any information provided will remain confidential

QUESTIONNAIRE (1)

Dear respondent
This survey is part of a PhD study (funded by Northumbria University, UK) and aims to find out:

- The type of places people like most in their city
- Their reason for the selection of such a place
- The relationship between people and place

If you are interested to have more information and the results of this study, please email me at:
mohammad.radfar@northumbria.ac.uk

Thank you

Interviewer ..MR..
Date of interview ..6/4/19..
Time start ..15:19.. Time end ..
Place of interview ..
General description of the respondent:
Age ..73.. Gender ..M..
City of residence ..England..

About your public place in the city

Please name two favourite **public places** (a, b) in your city. Please give **two reasons** (1, 2) why you like them

a. ..Coverage SQ..

1. ..nice Architecture..

2. ..Armistice Memorial Cenotaph..

b. ..Saughhall St..

1. ..Shops..

2. ..walk..

QUESTIONNAIRE (1)

Dear respondent
This survey is part of a PhD study (funded by Northumbria University, UK) and aims to find out:

- The type of places people like most in their city
- Their reason for the selection of such a place
- The relationship between people and place

If you are interested to have more information and the results of this study, please email me at:
mohammad.radfar@northumbria.ac.uk

Thank you

Interviewer ..MR..
Date of interview ..6/4/19..
Time start ..15:23.. Time end ..
Place of interview ..
General description of the respondent:
Age ..39.. Gender ..M..
City of residence ..England..

About your public place in the city

Please name two favourite **public places** (a, b) in your city. Please give **two reasons** (1, 2) why you like them

a. ..Kelvingrove Park..

1. ..lovely walk..

2. ..river, museum & gallery..

b. ..Bells Museum Park..

1. ..Art gallery..

2. ..lovely..

Please remember this questionnaire is for the research purposes only and any information provided will remain confidential

Appendix B

Table for determining random sample size from a given population, adapted from various resources (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970; Babbie, 1990; Payne & McMorris, 1995; Groves *et al.*, 2004; Saunders *et al.*, 2006; Dattalo & Oxford University, 2008)

	Degree of Accuracy/ Margin of Error 0.05	
Sample Population	95% Confidence level	90% Confidence level
10	10	10
20	19	19
30	28	29
50	44	47
75	63	67
100	80	87
150	108	122
200	132	154
250	152	182
300	169	207
400	196	250
500	217	285
600	234	315
700	248	341
800	260	363
900	269	382
1,000	278	399
1,200	291	427
1,500	306	460
2,000	322	498
2,500	333	524
3,500	346	558
5,000	357	586
7,500	365	610
10,000	370	622
25,000	378	646
50,000	381	655
75,000	382	658
100,000	383	659
250,000	384	662
500,000	384	663
1,000,000	384	663
2,500,000	384	663
10,000,000	384	663
100,000,000	384	663
264,000,000	384	663